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CHING HO:
000 A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

The Report of a Preliminary Survey
of the Town of Ching Ho, Hopei, North China

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

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Sociology, as a science, deals with the nature of society, its natural history, its characteristics, and the law and rules by which it moves and changes. The earlier sociologists used to compare society with a biological organism or with a physical force as a way of explaining the nature of social life — a sort of "analogical method", now regarded as unscientific as alchemy in the field of chemistry. Modern Sociology emphasizes concrete methods; and one of the concrete ways of studying the natural history and characteristics of human societies is the *study of communities*. A community, in the broadest sense of the term, has a special or geographical connotation. Every community has a *location*; and in that location there are *individuals*. Among these individuals there are definite *rellaions* to one another such as occupations, neighborhood, family status, political alignment, exchange of goods and services, and so on. From the adjustment of these relations flourish customs, folkways, mores, laws, conventions, standards and other varieties of *group definitions* or *social codes of behavior*. In order to enforce these *group definitions* there are schools, courts, churches, ancestral temples, clubs, homes, chambers of commerce, etc.

So in the fall of 1928 when the Department of Sociology and Social Work, Yenching University,

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000 received a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Fund for promoting sociological research, we felt that a concrete and somewhat quantitative analysis of a particular locality over a definite period of time would have more permanent value than a general description such as is usually offered as an interpretation of Chinese social life. After considerable discussion and for reasons stated in the first chapter of this report, we decided to take a sociological survey of the town of Ching Ho as the initial project in a series of studies. We organized a committee in charge of the survey with the writer as Chairman and Professor Cato Young, as Secretary ; and the Committee appointed Professor Young as director of the survey, with Mr. Yu Hsueh-chung, Mr. Wan Shu-yung, and Miss. Chang Kuang-lu, as principal investigators. Professor J. S. Burgess, served on the Committee during the first semester of 1928-1929; and left on a University mission in January of 1929 for the United States.

These facts presented here do throw interesting light upon the life of a Chinese community, and we hope that through further researches, based upon these facts as a sort of introduction, we shall be able to secure more concrete data which may help us to understand better the natural history and characteristics of human society in general. At the time of writing, the Department of Sociology is carrying on several other studies in and around Ching Ho as well as a Social Experiment Station in Ching Ho under the direction of Professors Cato Young and Hung-chun Chang. For this survey, the Department wishes to express its deep gratitude to the people in Ching Ho for their very friendly and congenial help ;

to Miss Dora Bent for her editorial; assistance and to the Rockefeller Foundation for their kind interest and support.

LEONARD S. HSU

December 1930.

FOREWORD

000 It is a pleasure to supplement by a few words what the editor of this graphic little Survey has set forth as to the circumstance which led to its appearance. He has described the considerations which influenced his colleagues and himself to undertake such a task. But the real reason is that a group of young, well-qualified and eagerly patriotic Chinese have realized the fundamental importance of understanding the social patterns in which the life of their country has taken form, before attempting to teach their students the principles of Sociology and the processes for its application to national improvement. The significance of this study is therefore primarily in the group who produced it. The pages that follow give ample evidence of the painstaking efforts they have put into their investigations, so that it only remains to testify to the enthusiasm and high purpose with which they have made the experiment. It supplies a hopeful angury of the awakening among Chinese thinkers of a new social purpose based on a combination of scientific inquiry and reforming idealism. As this spreads over the nation many such a village as our neighboring *Ching Ho* and many a student seeking an outlet for his patriotic urge will feel the consequences. No people has had a cultural tradition more concerned with human relationships than the Chinese, and this fits them peculiarly for making use

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000 of the disciplines of modern Sociology in which little is new to them except in matters of terminology and technic. All of which adds interest to the factual values of this volume.

J. LEIGHTON STUART

President's Office
Yenching University
December, 1930.

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CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Purpose of the study.

000 An early authority[1] in his description of village life in China states that the fact that there is "no background" and "no facts" on which to build up a study of village life, is one of the curses in China This negative standpoint represents the position of a great many foreigners in China, and of many of the Chinese people themselves. China seems to live in the air, having no sound basis or firm foundation. But unless we have a foundation on which to base our premises how can we explain the long history of China, the art, the philosophy, and the deep culture of the Chinese people? Are they miracles which have just happened to a certain people, or mysteries which cannot be fathomed? No, they are as real and based on as sure a foundation as western Culture. Some of us have spent much time in the study of our peculiar culture, but we have not used the same methods to interpret the results of average tendencies or variations as western Studants have used. So, it is not, as Dr. Smith conceives it, a question as to whether or not there are known facts and background to expound, but rather a question of the interpretation of

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[1] Smith Arthur, *Village Life in China.*

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000 these facts. If we are to make the studies of Chinese social life intelligible to others at least three measures must be taken.

First of all, the time element should be taken into consideration. Chinese social life has been described in poems, stories, dramas, pictures and other modes of expression. In addition, we have the descriptions of such sociologists as Doolittle, Smith, Leong and Tao, Kulp, Gamble and Burgess, but very few of them tell us what period of Chinese life they are describing. In their endeavours to cover a long period of time they have covered no period. We know that society is not a static thing but a changing process. China's yesterday is not the same as China's to-day, and China's to-morrow will be different from the past and present. A specialisation of the time period will certainly help us to describe clearly the background and facts in Chinese social life.

Secondly, facts must be related to a given area. It has often been the case that observations and descriptions of one or two localities are offered in explanation of the whole of Chinese social life. Yet so varied is the life of different districts in China that it is said that within ten *li* of one another villages may have totally different customs and thaditions. Therefore, it is impossible to write a treatise on the whole of Chinese social life, or even a part of it, without making hundreds of case studies of different localities and districts beforehand. Kulp is quite right in stating the time and place of the Phenix Village. He is also right in his criticism that other

works on Chinese social life are too general. But 000
still he could not resist the temptation of naming his book "Country Life in South China" and of using many generalisations.

Thirdly, we must have a quantitative analysis of facts. Although a mathematical analysis is not always possible, and is sometimes worthless when made, yet there is much more certainty and accuracy in a study made on this basis than in qualitative descriptions or impressive generalisations.

Therefore, the first intention of the present study 121
has been an exploration of both qualitative and quantitative facts in a rural market town during the academic year 1928-1929. The survey of timed, localised and analytical facts of even a small locality is bound to be of use in the understanding of Chinese life, but the working out of suitable methods for further exploration and survey has been still more important. The workers were immature, the methods in many cases imperfect, yet our study has reavealed opportunities for further improvement. The shaping of our sociological tools through the investigation of Chinese social life has been the second purpose of our study.

A third purpose, not important to the outside, but 000
very important from our point of view, has been the training of our sociology students in the work of getting and orgarizing sociological data. Five or six of our advanced students have taken part in this work which has been both a help to themselves and to the work. There is a crying need in China to-day for trained workers who know how to obtain exact and

000 accurate data, and how to use and interpret the data when it has been secured. Therefore, the Department of Sociology has looked upon this study as a laboratory exercise for our advanced students who are interested in such studies.

2. Selection of the Locality

121 Knowing that a quantitative analysis of a particular locality over a definite period of time would have more permanent value than a general description such as is usually offered as an interpretation of Chinese social life, the Department of Sociology set out to look for a suitable place for such a study. It was decided that this should be either a village or a town with a population of not more than 5,000, the reasons being that (1) our time was limited to nine months from September 1928 to June 1929, (2) the money available was limited to a couple of thousand dollars, Chinese Currency, for salaries, equipment, travelling, printing etc., and (3) our experience, also, was limited. So a Village or town of that size is the largest we can afford to study at least for the time being.

Secondly, we put considerable emphasis on the normality of the locality, as to whether it was a typical community or not. Naturally, it was very difficult to decide what should be the test for normality, especially in districts around Peping (Peking) where urban influences and Manchus Camps are apparent abnormal features, So at the beginning of the Selection we were careful in avoiding these abnormal features. Besides, other factors such as cropping system, marketing system, family organization, educational organisation, and religious organisation are all taken into consideration in our selection. After all, we felt that the only evident abnormal feature were the lack of any strong family influence, and the presence of a large number of Mohammedans. In the third place, we have to consider the proximity to the University because we are planning to use the place as a sociological laboratory for both faculty members as advanced students. Although we engaged a paid field worker, yet teachers and students have had to make frequent journeys between the University and the laberatory, so that any place three or four hours distant from the University was obviously out of the question from the outset, owing to the waste of time which the travelling would have caused for both teachers and students. In the good weather Ching Ho is only one hour distant from the University Campus, and therefore, this was an important factor in its selection from the point of view of economy of time and expense in transportation. 121

Finally, no survey or investigation is possible without the co-operation of the people and the leaders of the local community, and for this reason also, Ching Ho was considered a favourable centre. When queer people, such as we, enter a town and commence to ask strange questions such as "When were you married?" there is bound to be a certain amount of uneasiness and suspicion. Although we had no student from Ching Ho or any direct contact with the people, yet we knew people who were interested in social refrom work there, and we felt sure that we could expect some co-operation in our work from the people themselves. At the same time we had made enquiries regarding several other sites for our study. We finally decided that although Ching Ho was not the ideal site for such a detailed study as we hoped to make, yet taking the above considerations into account it would proably be the best for our purpose.

3. Method of Approach.

Before we finally decided to take Ching Ho as our experimental station we sent a man to make a rapid preliminary survey of the local conditions, which he was able to complete in two days. He gave us an adequate, though short, concrete report. Interviews were also sought with anyone who knew anything at all of the district, and two members of the faculty went to Ching Ho to verify the findings personally and to get into contact with the local leaders. After the final decision was reached profesor Cato Young was asked to take charge of the survey, with the assistance of a paid field worker, and the promise of all the help he required from the faculty and the students. A detailed outline of the survey was then worked out; and its main headings were as follows:

1. Historical background.
2. Geographical background.
3. Ecological relations.
4. Population.
5. Family and marriage.
6. Economic conditions.
7. Political conditions.
8. Educational conditions.
9. Health and sanitation.

121

10. Religion and morality.
11. Play and recreation.
12. Social pathological conditions.

In addition, folkways and social change were suggested by members of the Department, but owing to the short time which the survey was to cover, and to the special nature of these studies, it was decided to omit them from this general survey. In the final report some parts as listed in the general outline are again ruled out because of inadequary of data.

We realised that if we were to get full and accurate facts regarding the subjects included under each heading. four different channels of approach were necessary. (1) The community as a whole, and also the neighbouring communities would have to be briefly surveyed in order to form an adequate background for more detailed work. (2) The various existing community organisations would have to be carefully examined to discover their structure and function. (3) Systematic enquiries would have to be made regarding the families and households; and (4) every individual old or young, of either sex, would have to be questioned in order to find their relation to the population problems of quantity, composition and migration.

As the community is simple, and there are very 125 few organisations it was felt that no special schedule for organization was needed. A schedule was prepared in Chinese for each household, covering all kinds of general informations about the household and another was prepared for getting information about each individual member in the family. A translation

125 of the original schedules are appended in order to show the reader the tools which our field men had when collecting data. Ching Ho is a rural market town with more than one hundred stores so that special schedules for stores and storekeepers seemed necessary in investigating stores which are in many ways different from the ordinary households, and translations of them are also appended for reference.

These schedules have been revised several times before they took their prenent form. At first, we planned to print the questions on 5'X8½' regular schedule cards, but owing to the heavy cost, and the delay in printing, and also the frequent changes in the form of the schedule the original plan was abandoned, and the present mimeographed forms were used: The size of these mimeographed schedules makes them inconvenient, but as they are done quickly at the University the saving of time and money has been a considerable factor in their production in this form.

CHAPTER II

History, Geography and Ecology

1. Some historical observations on Ching Ho Town.

The history of Ching Ho as an important market 114 town dates back about fifty years only. There is no 174 written material regarding the town, or even of the county in which it is situated. In *Shuen Tien Fu Chi* (順天府誌) and *Je Fu Tung Chi* (畿輔通志), the two most important works dealing with the history and geography of the neighbourhood of Peping the name of Ching Ho is not even mentioned. The former monograph was completed in 1885 and the latter was first compiled about two hundred years ago and revised in 1884, This would lead us to believe that the town of Ching Ho did not occupy an important position in the 1880's. However, the Ching Ho river received a considerable amount of careful and laborious attention from the writers of these books, and there are many references to it in the text and footnotes. The Ching Ho camp was also mentioned, and marked on the map at a spot about five miles east of the site of the present town of Ching Ho.

From what we can gather from the literary works 174 and from the old inhabitants of Ching Ho we con safely say that Ching Ho has a history of about fifty years as an important market town. Some fifty years ago

174 there were only about twenty moderate sized shops which served as resting places for travellers to and from the northwest of China. There was also a royal granary of considerable importance on the south-eastern border of Ching Ho at a distance of of about one *li* where a large amount of foodstuffs collected from the Southern provinces of the Empire, and transported north by way of the Grand Canal and Tungchow, were stored. Around the granary lived a large number of guards and carriers who were the regular customers of the small shops in Ching Ho.

443 174 Some time during the closing years of the last century—a date which we have not been able to ascertain definitely—a system was established for the exchange of grain. Before that time the farmers of the district northwest of Peping often marketed their grain at the Pinghsifu (平西府) market or the Sha-ho (沙河) market. But owing to its proximity to Peping and its strategic position on the great northwestern highway Ching Ho has rapidly developed into one of most important market towns in the northwestern area of Hopei (Chihli) Province. At the time of the Boxer Rebellion Ching Ho was already notable as a market town, and the temporary foreign rulers in Peping even sent agents to help maintain the market in a peaceful and orderly state.

438 174 Later, during the closing years of the Tsing Dynasty the town grew rapidly on account of the establishment of a number of government institutions, a military academy, a military factory and an aerodrome all in the west of the town. Ching Ho became not only the first grain market in the northwestern

area of Hopei Province, but also a very large market 438
for the distribution of manufactured commodities to 174
the neighbouring farmers and the government em-
ployees. Towards the end of the Tsing Dynasty a [497]
railway was built connecting Peping with Kalgan
direct. Although there is a station at Ching Ho it is
some distance from the town. It is more convenient
for farmers to transport their grain and agricultural
produce directly through to Peping by the railway
than to stop at Ching Ho to market it there. Con-
sequently the grain market at West Gate of Peping
(Hsichihmen) is competing with Ching Ho, and is
threatening to take its place as the most important
grain market in this district. Some time after the [464]
revolution all the government institutions, such as
the military academy, the military factory and the
aerodrome have been suspended owing to political
disturbances, and a large number of people have been
thrown out of employment. But the disadvantages
through political disburbances have been in some
measure offset by the fact that communications by
railway were also upset, and so grain passing
through on old highway has given Ching Ho a tem-
porary opportunity of reviving its ealier prestige.
When the political situation improves it is confidently
expected that both the government institutions and
the railway will resume, and that although the posi-
tion of Ching Ho as the primary grain collecting
centre of the northwestern area will probably be im-
paired, yer its position as a distributinn centre for the
surrounding neighbourhood, and for the government
institutions, will be strengthened.

CHING HO: A SOCIALOGICAL ANALYSIS

II. Geography

131 Ching Ho is situated about six miles or eighteen *li* from the nearest gate, the Te Sheng Men (德勝門) of Peping.

It is in the same longtitude as Peping, and only a slightly higher latitude. The following figures will indicate the exact position to the reader:

Peping	Longtitude	116 24'- 28'	latitude	39.54'-58'
Ching Ho	,,	116 23'- 24'	,,	40.1'-2'.

132 The land level is about twelve feet higher than Peping which has a land level of 122.3 above sea level. The climate, hot in summer, cold in winter, northwest wind, and sandstorms, is exactly like that of Peping, and typical of this part of the country. The rainfall record is very low with an average of about twenty inches per annum, most of which is precipitated during the months of June and July. The other ten months are very dry, and this accounts for frequent droughts. We shall not give any detailed account of climatic records here, because during our few months work in Ching Ho we did not make any, and it is needless to quote those made by government agencies in Peping.

133 A small river-the Ching Ho-flows through the town, from which Ching Ho derives its name. *Ching* means "clear" and *Ho* means "river". Thus its name signifies that the water of the river is very clear, and this is the case if the Ching Ho is compared with the other sand-carrying rivers in this region. Its source is a few miles southwest of the town in the famous Jade Spring Mountain. (玉泉山) The

river flows northeast to Ching Ho town and then 133
joins the *Sha Ho* (沙 河) a few miles east. In olden times this small river was partly utilised for transportation purposes, but owing to the accumulation of sand in the river bed it is no longer navigable.

The soil is primarily a light sandy loam, typical 134
of the district, The water table is at a moderate level except in the case of the hilliest parts which have rather a poor water supply. Soil fertility is normal although little artificial fertilizer has been applied to the land. The land is suitable for the cultivation of the ordinary northern crops, such as corn, sorgham (Kaoliang), wheat, beans, etc. Because of the amout of water obtainable from artesian wells it would be possible to introduce the cultivation of rice into this district as has been done around the Jade Spring Mountain.

After leaving Peping Ching Ho is the first halting 489
place on the road to the northwest of China by the old government eighteen foot-wide highway which passes through the centre of the town on its way to Kalgan and Mongolia. In the old days it was kept in good repair, and served as a means of communication both for heavy transport and swift messages, but since the building of the Peking-Suiyuan Railway little attention has been paid to the old highway. Gradually the fields are encroaching on its great width, and the surface is becoming rough, making it very inconvenient to travel. It was thought that the building of the Peking-Suiyuan Railway with a station at Ching Ho would be a valuable asset to the town. Unfortunately the station was built a mile away from the town and

489 most of the passengers and goods travel diractly through to Peking.

Rickshas and donkeys rank foremost among the means of communication, by which the journey from Te Sheng Men to Ching Ho can be made within one hour for about thirty cents. By bicyle, which is another much-used means of transport, the journey from Peping to Ching Ho can be made in thirty minutes. For heavy transport horses and carts are mostly used. The railway does not serve the locality well because of its inconvenient schedule, and location. The town contains a second-class post office, but there is no telegraph service. Telephone service is available, but owing to the thrifty habits of the people only two of the stores have made use of this facility.

II. Political Relationship in the District.

631 Ching Ho is the centre for local politics, local communications and local trade. In order to properly understand the town itself, some account of the ecological relationships with the neighbouring district must be given. There are at least three kinds of relationship which should be dealt with in the present survey: the political, the trading and the social, and these will be discussed in turn.

Ching Ho is the centre of two political districts; it is the headquarters of the Fifth Political District of Wan Ping Hsien (宛平縣) and also the headquarters of the Ninth Station of the First Police Nistrict of Peping North. This dual service is made possible by arbitrarily dividing the town into two parts, each part being made the centre of one district. The

The practice of dividing a centre among several districts is a common one in China. For example, Peping is the headquarters for both Ta Hsing Hsien (大興縣) and Wan Ping Hsien (宛平縣) in addition to being the centre for other political districts; and the same applies to Nanking and other big cities. [634] 631

If it is to render adequate service the headquarters ought naturally to be in the very centre of the district, but the strange thing is that the Fifth Political District of Wan Ping Hsien is divided into two parts, one around the town of Ching Ho on its northwestern side, and the other division some forty li away. There is Still another village in the same political division, which is about forty li away on the Northeestern side and is not territorically connected with Ching Ho either. In order to transact any political business the officials from the headquarters have to go through some one else's territory in order to get to their own districts. As can be seen from the map (2) there are two separate districts on the east side and on the west side. Although the eastern area is relatively small in size it has a much larger population and is far wealthier than the mountainous and less productive western district. Since it is impossible to attend to the daily business of the western district from the central office, a branch office is maintained in Pei An Ho, (北安河) as a sub-centre for the whole district. The map shows also the village of Yü Chuang (于莊) which is forty li from the central administration.

As can be seen from the map, that part of the metropolitan area which has the south side of Ching Ho for its centre is much smaller than the fifth district

6:Youn et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

631 of wan Ping Hsien, This center maintains only a police siation in order to preserve order and to collect taxes. This southern part consists of only nine small villages with 510 families while the northern centre controls thirty four villages of 5,000 families. The northern area also has a considerable number of political organizations, and is the political centre of local selfgovernment. A detailed account of local polities will be given in a later chapter.

IV. Trade Connection.

438
443 Ching Ho is both a collecting and distributing centre for the district, and the area may be divided into four widely different trading zones. The largest of these zones is that for the collection of grain. Its size is due to the fact that although there may be inconvenience to the farmer in bringing his grain a greater distance, still he is able to commend a better price at Ching Ho than if he were to sell to travelling merchants. The zone includes a large area on the northern side of Ching Ho stretching towards Sha Ho along the old highway. Sha Ho is ten miles from Ching Ho, but the merchants prefer to bring their grain to Ching Ho where they can get better prices than in Sha Ho. Six miles to the northeast is the Pingsifu market which again attracts a smaller market than Ching Ho. Both these markets have a longer history than Ching Ho market and were formerly the centres for the Ching Ho area, but owing to the proximity of Ching Ho to Peping, and its position on the old highway to Kalgan it has now taken a more important position. To the northwest is the market

438
443

of How Chuang (後廠) which has been establisted for less than ten years, and cannot compare with Ching Ho in the amount of business. However, these three markets are able to work amicably with the Ching Ho market. Because of its better prices and larger market the trade zone for Ching Ho stretches about two thirds of the distance towards these other markets and they draw their clientele from the smaller area. There is also an arrangement regarding market days by which Ching Ho holds its market on the odd days of the Chinese month, and the other place open their markets on even days.

The area of the zone to the south of Ching Ho is rather small, owing to the small crop of grain produced in that region, and not, as might be thought at first sight, because of its proximity to the Hsichimen, Peping. The land in this part has been used largely for cemetaries, and the area of land per household is very small, only producing enough for the tenants' own consumption. Indeed, in many cases farmers have to bring foodstuffs from the Ching Ho market.

The second zone comprises a distributing area for farm produce other than grain. Little of the grain collected in the first mentioned zone is consumed locally, but is mostly sent to Peping or other larger cities for milling and redistribution. But Ching Ho is a distributing centre for vegetables, fruit, peanuts, and sweet potatoes, particularly for the area south of the town. The zone covers an area which extends almost to the city wall of Peping.

In addition to these two large zones for the collection and districution of grain and other farm produce, 438 there are two other zones one for the distribution of 443 daily necessities such as oil, salt, sauce etc., and the other for the districution of such commodities as clothing, hardware, farm implements etc. Because of the necessity of daily buying for the first mentioned class of goods, the source of supply must be near at hand, and therefore the zone for the distribution of such commodities is naturally smaller, and in a circular form. The neighbouring towns and villages usually have small stores of their own, where the village people would naturally buy their everyday needs rather than go to Ching Ho where the money saved by buying in the larger market would not compensate for the long journey incurred.

The last zone comprises the area for the distribution of the more important and expensive goods. If a buyer wishes to spend one dollar or more he will go to the cheaper market notwithstanding the long distance, and there are also many commodities which cannot be obtained in the small village store. Therefore, this last zone covers an area almost equal to that for the collection of grain. In fact it coincide very closely with the grain collecting area because many of these people who market their grain in Ching Ho take back their daily necessities and other commodities from the town on their return journey. Outside of an area of about six miles we find that people are only interested in the sale of their produce and not interested in Ching Ho as buyers, and to the south of the town the people are familiar with Peping prices, and prefer to make their purchases in the city.

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND ECOLOGY

V. Social Relations

The Ching River not only divides the district into political areas, but it also divides the town into two different social regions. To the north is a typical rural area with a small population, large villages at long distances from each other and an area producing large crops of grain and other agricultural produce. To the south is a small suburban area, with a dense population much influenced by Peping, and containing many cemetaries and Manchu camps. In the northern area one can scarcely find any single households, but there are a number of large villages having a population 100 families or more, while in the southern area single households are everywhere from the city wall to the Ching River, and there is only one village with a population of 120 families, that being a Manchu camp. This, of course, does not take into account such towns as Chengfu and Haitien. In this southern area there are several hundreds of graveyards from the cemetary of prince and princess to the small tomb of the proletariat. There is no truck farming (market gardening) or large estates in this area, these usually being located just outside the city gates, and in the case of Peping the large estates are found chiefly around the Old Summer Palace (圓明園) and the gardens outside Hsichimen. As far as we can trace there is no large clan or religions relationship between the central and the surrounding neighbourhood. This is a part of the country which has been disturbed and resettled many times, and in the oldest families one can only trace four or five generations; so that no one clan or big

361 family can be found here as is the case in the Yangtse valley or the provinces bordering on the south seas.

The people call themselves Buddhists, but they do not know anything of Buddhism except its forms of worship, and there is no temple mysterious enough to excite their attention. The only religious interest is on the part of the Mohammedans who maintain a temple in the town. So the religious relationship between the town and the surrounding villages is absent and no church zone like they have in the United States could be found.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION

1. Quantity and Density.

The total population of Ching Ho is approximate- 162
ly 2437. There are 613 in the stores, 38 in public and
semi-public organisations, and 1819 in families-a total
of 2470. The difference of the counted total with the
real total is accounted for by the fact that some of the
people in the stores and public services belong to
families in Ching Ho, and they have been counted
both in the canvas of the storee and services, and also
in the house-to-house canvas. Therefore, it is necessary
for us to deduct these people from the counted
total. As far as we can ascertain there are 33 persons
who have families living in Ching Ho and have been
counted twice, so that this leaves a net total of 2437.

The total of 2437 does not only include those who
live for most of the year in the community, but also
includes a few others who while not actually living
there do belong to the community. The family heads, [596]
or sons who are working or studying away from home,
but whose family or property are still in the district
are often considered as members of the family, and
hence of the community. There are 90 people who 162
live outside of the town for the greater part of the 462
year-77 males and 13 females. This points to the fact
that the female members of the family are not so

162 462 accustomed to going outside the town for work as the men. In China industry and trade are still monopolised almost entirely by men[1], and this brings into consideration many factors in the study of sex composition in the town and in the country, a detailed discussion of which will be presented in the next chapter.

162 In trying to ascertain the density of the population, or number of people per square mile, we have found some difficulty in finding the exact area of the town. There is no map, or official measurements or statement, and it is difficult to get any person to assist in this direction. Accord to our measurement the distance from north to south is 2650 Chinese feet, and the distance from east to west after the necessary adjustments have been made for the irregular shape is 850 Chinese feet. The total area will then be 2,252,500 square feet according to the Chinese system. As 25,300,000 square feet according to Chinese measurement is equivalent to one square mile, we have in Ching Ho an area of 0.089 square miles. With 2,437 people in 0.089 square miles, the population density of Ching Ho should be 27,000 persons per square mile.

2. Sex Composition.

China is predominantly a man's country, not only in the administration of the law and in work, but also in the composition of its population. In the twelve big cities of China we have the high percentage of 61% males as compared with 39% females, But this is chiefly owing to the fact that in the big cities positions are usually open to men only. Since the surveys of our big cities show that we have a high proportion of males we naturally expect that the percentage of females in the country should be greater than the percentage of males. This hypothesis does not receive support from the data which is already in existence and from our findings in Ching Ho. In the country area of Shanghai the sex composition is 50.2 male to 49.8 female; in the country districts of Kuan Shan (崑山) the proportion is 51 male to 49 female; and the ratio given by Kulp in a village in Kwuntung is 52 male to 48 female. In Ching Ho the actual composition is as follows :—

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[1] Except in port cities.

TABLE I SEX COMPOSITION.

Types of Population.	Total		Male		Female.	
	No.	°/o	No.	°/o	No.	°/o
Stores	613	100.0	556	90.7	57	9.3
Familes	1,819	100.0	955	52.5	864	47.5
Public services.	38	100.0	38	100.0	0	0
Total	2,470		1549		921	
Less duplicates	33		33		0	
Total	2,437	100.0	1,516	62.2	921	37.8

If we use the female figure as a basis at 100 we have the ratio as follows :—

TABLE II

Types of Population	No. of males	No. of females.	Females as 100.
Stores	556	57	975
Families	955	864	111
Public Services.	38		0
Total (Less duplicates)	1,516	921	165

It is, of course, expected that there will be a larger percentage of men than women employed in the stores and public organisations. The family stores where we have female members are few in number as compared with the general type of store which does not employ female labour. This higher percentage of men in the stores and public organisation has a large influence on the final figures, and accounts in a great measure for the higher ratio of males—165 males to 100 females.

At first it is difficult to understand why the families should have a larger percentage of males than females, but closer examination revealed the fact that many of the males in stores and public organization had been counted twice. 77 males working outside the town had been counted in the town, and would be again connted in the place where they were working, whereas there were only 13 females working outside who might be counted twice. There were 24 people working in Ching Ho stores who had already been counted in the store canvas, and nine in the public services. If we count these people where they work and live we find a total of 843 males to 851 females. Thus the actual ratiothat is the actual ratio between the males and females who actually live and work in the family-shows that there are more females than males. The exact frgures are as follows:—

TABLE III THE ACTUAL SEX COMPOSITION OF PEOPLE LIVING IN FAMILIES.

Working places.	Total No.	Total %	Male No.	Male %	Female No.	Female %	Female as 100.
In the family	1,694	100.0	843	49.8	851	50.2	99
Outside town	92		79		13		
In stores	24		24		0		
In public services.	9		9		0		
Total	1,819		955	52.5	864	47.5	111

If we take the family population in the southern section of the town the proportions are even more interesting. As we shall find in our study of the stores most of these are in the northern section of the town, and therefore, people in the northern section naturally have more chances of working in the stores, and are less likely to go to other places to earn their living. So we find that there are 54 persons or 73% from the southern section who go outside the town to seek work, and there are only 38 or 35% from the northern section. This factor has a distinct influence on the sex distribution figures for the southern section where we find the female population much higher than the male :—

TABLE IV THE ACTUAL SEX COMPOSITION OF PEOPLE LIVING IN FAMILIES IN THE SOUTHER SECYION.

Working Places	Total		Male		Femole		Female
	No.	%	No.	%	Nc.	%	as 100.
Inside town	688	100.0	329	47.8	359	02.2	97
Outside town.	54		49		5		
Total	742		378	50.9	364	49.1	104

3. Age Composition

The fact that in most cases trade, industry, and public services only employ male workers results in a higher male population in cities, and probably a higher female population in the country districts, a state which is exactly opposite to that existing in the United States. But when we come to the question of age composition there is no such contrast because, like America, we prefer to employ the middle-aged, rather than old people or children; so that in this case the conclusions are about the same between the two countries, that is that we have more middle aged people in the stores and fewer in the families. The respective figures and percentages are presented in the following two tables :—

POPULATION

TABLE V. AGE COMPOSIVION OF FAMILY POPULATION.

Age Groups.	Total		Male.		Female	
	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀
0-4	206	11.3	121	12.7	85	9.8
6-9	184	10.1	108	11.3	76	8,8
10-14	138	7.6	75	7.9	63	7,3
15-19	177	9.7	98	10.3	79	9.2
20-24	135	7.4	71	7.4	64	7,4
25-29	156	8.6	91	9.5	65	7.5
30-34	142	7.8	77	8.1	65	7.5
35-39	140	7.7	70	7.3	70	8.1
40-44	101	5.6	52	5,5	49	5.7
45-49	102	5.6	51	5,3	51	5,9
50-54	77	4,2	32	3.4	45	5.2
55-59	96	5.3	39	4.1	57	6.6
60-64	69	3.8	29	3.0	40	4.6
65-69	50	2,8	24	2.5	26	3.0
70-74	22	1,2	10	1,0	12	1,4
75-79	14	0.8	4	0.4	10	1.2
80-	8	0.4	2	0.2	6	0.7
Total	1817	100.0	954	100.0	863	100.0
Unknown	2		1		1	

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TABLE VI. AGE COMPOSITION OF STORE POPULATION.

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Age Groups.	Total		Male.		Female	
	No.	°/o	No.	°/o	No.	°/o
0-4	16	2.6	7	1.3	9	16.4
5-9	8	1.3	4	.7	4	7.3
10-15	29	4.7	26	4.7	3	5.5
15-10	107	17.1	103	18.6	4	7.3
20-24	79	14.7	74	13.3	5	9.1
25-29	73	11.7	68	12,3	5	9.1
30-34	63	10.1	58	10.5	5	9.1
35-39	60	9.6	56	10.1	4	7.3
40-44	59	9.5	53	9.6	6	10.9
45-49	36	5.7	34	6.1	2	3.6
50-54	28	4.5	26	4.7	2	3.6
55-59	21	3.4	18	3.2	3	5.5
60-64	20	3.1	17	3.1	3	5.5
64-69	8	1.3	8	1.4	-	-
70-74	1	0,2	1	0.2	-	-
75-79	1	0.2	1	0.2	-	-
80-	1	0,2	1	0.2	-	-
Total	610	100.0	555	100.0	55	100.0
Children Age unknown	3		1		2	

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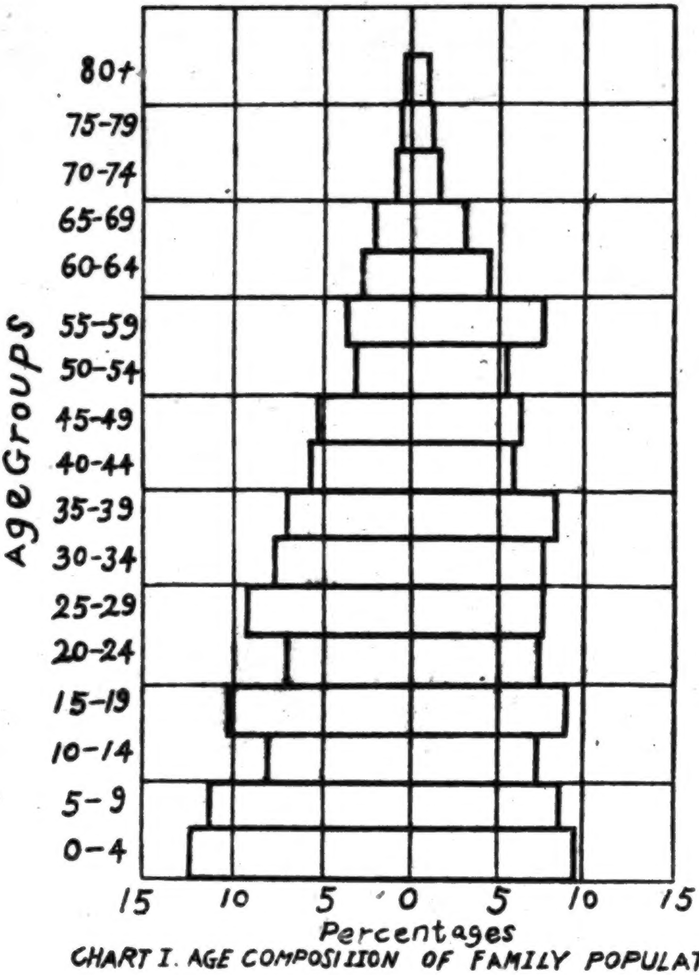

CHART I. AGE COMPOSITION OF FAMILY POPULATION

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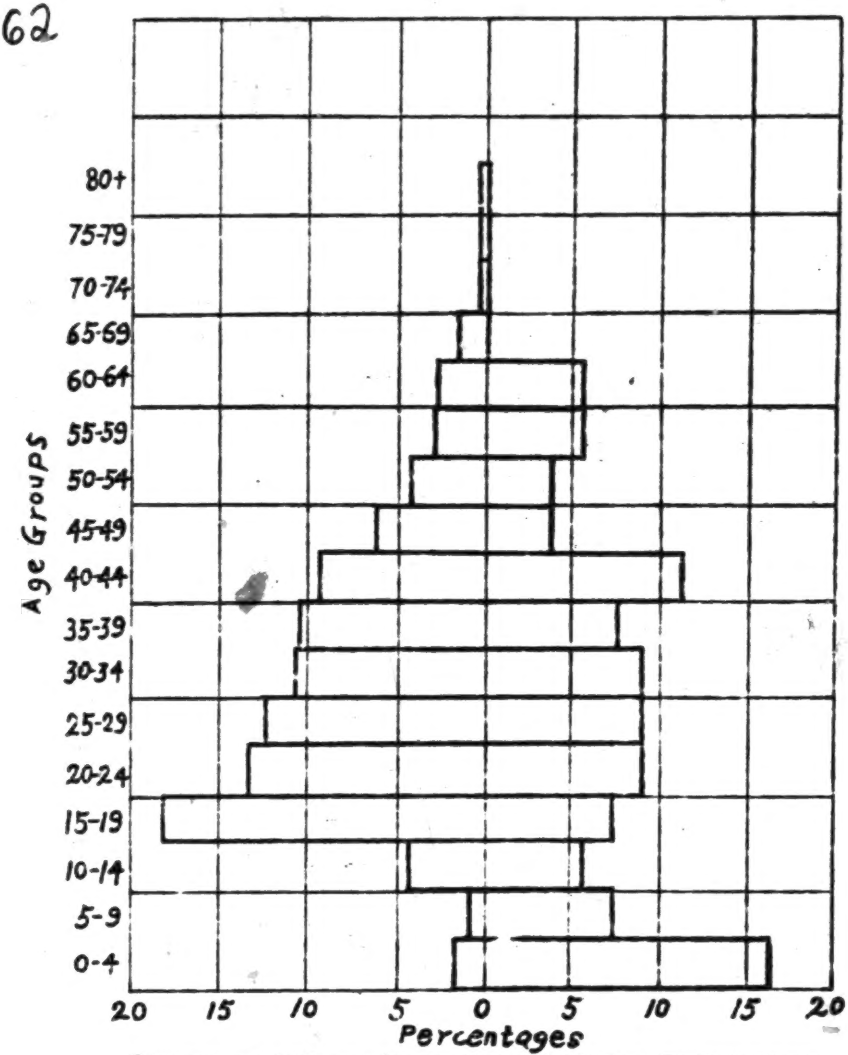

CHART II AGE COMPOSITION OF STORE POPULATION

POPULATION

If we draw out the data in graph form we can see the differences much more easily. The family population looks like a sharp pyramid, with the youngest age group as the foundation, and as age advances the percentage decreases until we have only about one percent in the seventy and eighty year groups. This ytpe of age pyramid is typical of family groups everywhere. In the case of store groups we have a different picture. The largest age group here is the 15-19 group, decreasing both downwards and upwards because in the stores we have very little use for children and less use for aged people. Owing to the small number of family stores the female group is very irregular, and for the same reason there will be very few people in the group below 10-14, and still fewer in the group above sixty years. The male group looks very much like a city group or an immigrant group. 162

TABLE VII AGE COMPOSITION OF FAMILY POPULATION.

Age Groups.	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
0-14	528	29.1	304	31.9	224	25.9
15-49	954	52.4	510	53.5	444	51.5
50-	335	18.5	140	14.7	195	22.6
Total.	1,817	100.0	954	100.0	863	100.0

If we put these ages into three large groups corresponding to what we may call young under 15 years, adult from 15 to 49 inclusive, and old from 50 years upwards we can see the differences more clearly. As the age composition of the store group is so irregular we are leaving it out of our calculations for the time being. We do not get much information from the actual figures, but if we turn our attention to the percentages the differences are at once obvious. In all three cases the middle group contains more than half of the population. The males have a much higher percentage for the youngest group, and a very low percentage in the oldest group, while in the female groups the differences are not so marked. This corresponds to the theory that there are more males born, but that females attain to a greater age on the average.

If we adopt Whipple's scale of measuring the progressiveness of a population we find that the total

TABLE VIII WHIPPLE'S TABLE OF TYPES OF AGE DISTRIBUTION[1]

Age Groups	Percentage of Population.		
	Progressive	Stationary	Regressive.
0-14	40	33	20
15-49	50	50	50
50-	10	17	30

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[1] Whipple, *Vital Statistics*, p. 183

population and the male population correspond very closely to his type of stationary population, while the female population is more regressive. 162

4. Racial Composition

In the strict sense of the term there is no difference of race in the population of Ching Ho. All belong to the same racial stock which we call Mongolian, but if we think of the Manchus as a separate branch of the race we shall find that there is a difference in the racial composition of the population here. So far as the field workers have been able to find out there are only 35 males and 30 females who belong to the sub-racial stock of Manchus, which makes a total of 65 persons, or 2.7% of the whole population of Ching Ho. Although Ching Ho was not a Manchurian camp in the Tsing dynasty, yet many influences were received from the Manchus, especially by the people who lived around the former royal granary which we have described in the chapter on the history of Ching Ho. We suspect that some of the Manchus have possibly concealed the fact of their origin from the investigators as many do not like people to know that they are Manchus, and make every effort to keep the fact a secret. But usually we can tell whether a person is Manchu or Chinese by his name if he has not adopted a Chinese name. All Manchus belong to the same tribe and have a similar surname. Their names are Manchurian sounds translated into Chinese words, and the sounds are connected, so that we can easily tell whether it is a Manchurian name translated 162 563

162 563 into Chinese, in the same way as we distinguish names translated from the Western languages and the Japanese language.

5. Nativity.

162 As all people in Ching Ho are Chinese citizens we can only analyse them from the point of view of the places of which they are natives. It is not necessary that people should be born in a certain locality nor is it necessary that they should have grown up in a certain district in order to be called a native. It is the traditional connection, the connection established by father, grandfather or great-grandfather that makes one a native of a particular place. One may not be in the real sense a native of the locality, but a man's native place is regulated by his family connections. The present analysis is based on this traditional sense of the term nativity.

Let us first analyse the nativity of the family population which has less outsiders in its composition than has the store population.

From table VIII it will be seen that there are a comparatively small number who come from outside the district - 211 or 11.6% of the whole family population. This percentage may appear quite high at first, yet it is very low when compared with high proportion of people from outside the district in the store population. Those under the heading of Wan Ping include a few people from other villages and towns, and this will make the real percentage a little higher.

QUANTITY AND DENSITY

TABLE VIII NATIVITY OF THE FAMILY POPULATION.

Locality	Total		Male.		Female.	
	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀
Wan Ping.	1,606	88.4	847	88.7	759	88.0
Hopei.[1]	142	7.8	73	7.7	69	7.9
Tientsin.	25		12		13	
Chang Ping.	17		9		8	
Peking.	16		10		6	
Peking North	9		3		6	
Peking West	6		3		3	
Other districts.	69		36		33	
Other Provinces.	69	3.8	34	3.6	30	4.1
Shantung	49		26		23	
Shansi	7		3		4	
Fentien	7		4		3	
Honan.	6		1		5	
Total.	1,817	100.0	954	100.0	863	100.0

[1] Includus everyone from Hopei province except those from Wan Ping.

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TABLE IX NATIVITY OF THE STORE POPULATION.

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Locality.	Total		Male.		Female.	
	No.	°/o	No.	°/o	No.	°/o
Local Town	149	24.3	106	19.1	43	75.4
Wan Ping[1]	51	8.3	50	9.0	1	1.8
Hopei[2]	376	61.4	364	65.4	12	21.2
Chang Ping	165		164		1	
Peking North.	38		37		1	
Peking West	27		23		4	
Tung Hsien.	18		18		0	
Ta Ching	14		14		0	
Yao Yang	13		13		0	
Other districts.	101		95		6	
Other Provinces.	37	6.1	36	6.5	1	1.8
Shantung	29		28		1	
Shansi.	8		8		0	
Total	613	100.0	556	100.0	57	100.0

1. Except local town.

2. Except Wan Ping.

QUANTITY AND DENSITY

It will be seen that in connection with the store 162
population local inhabitants constitute only 24.3%. 443
while people from outside the town constitute 75.7%. This means that the business of Ching Ho is practiaclly controlled by outsiders. In the analysis of the nativity of the store population local people are differentiated from the people from neighbouring villages of the same county, although most of them still have their families in their respective villages, but pursue some kind of business at Ching Ho. The figures which we have presented in this table show the real number of natives. In passing it is interesting to note that Chang Ping, one of the neighbouring courties of Wang Ping has the largest number of people in Ching Ho, which seems to point to the fact that the people of Chang Ping are more familiar with business activities than the people of Wan Ping.

CHAPTER IV

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

I. Size of the Family

592 596 No definite conclusions with regard to the size of the family can be drawn unless we know what should be included in the family unit. Ordinarily a family includes everybody who lives under the same roof, eats at the same table, and shares in the privileges and duties of all the members. Two to three generations are often included in the family, but all in the unit are not necessarily blood relations. An adopted son or daughter. a servant or any other person sharing in the common life will be included in the economic family or household which in Chinese is called "fu" (戶)

162 The size of the store family will be dealt with in another chapter, and here we shall deal chiefly with size of the family of the ordinary people. The most popular idea is that the Chinese family is very large, but in our survey we have found the average number of members per family to be 4.9, which is not much more than in the United States where the number of members in the family is generally supposed to be small. In 1920 the number per family in the United States was 4.3, in New York City 4.4 and Great Britain 4.5. If we take 4.3 as 100 we have a proportion of 114 to 100 in comparing the Chinese and American family.

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

TABIE X. DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY SIZE.

SIZE	NO. OF FAMILIES	NO. OF PERSONS
1	21	21
2	44	88
3	66	198
4	57	228
5	57	285
6	45	270
7	29	203
8	17	130
9	9	81
10	7	70
11	7	77
12	2	24
13	6	78
14	1	14
15	2	30
16	1	16
TOTAL	371	1819

162 The different sizes of the family and their respective frequencies are shown in table X where it will be seen that the most general size is one of three persons, closely followed by families of four and five persons, and then those of six and two members. These five types include 269 families or 72.5% of the 371 families examined.

Closely connected with the economic family or household is the biological family including only blood relations, and those introduced into the family by marriage. Here the average number of persons per family is 4.8, a slightly smaller size than the economic family unit.

2. Family Organization.

596 One characteristic of the Chinese family group is the complexity of its organization. Brothers and even cousins, after marriage, often live together in the same family unit, and five generations with one hundred or more members in one family unit is not unknown. In considering family organization in Ching Ho we have only included blood relations, and not friends, workers, or relatives on the maternal side.

There are two ways in which we can analyse the family; the vertical analysis by which we find how many lines of family members there are, such as married brothers and cousins; and the horizontal analysis by which we find how many generations, married and unmarried are living in the same family unit. In the vertical analysis members who are descended from the family head or his parents are included in one line, while unmarried brothers and sisters are counted as half a line. A married brother is counted as one additional line. In our analysis we found that most of the families (302 or 81.5%) had only one line, that is there was no brother or sister either married or unmarried living with the family head. There was only one case where an unmarried cousin lived in the family, the rest which show more than one line of family members being all brothers. There were 33 cases where unmarried brothers or sisters lived with their their married brothers; 25 cases where one married brother lived with the family head; five cases where one married brother and one or more unmarried brothers or sisters lived with the family head; five cases where two married brothers lived with their brothers; and one case where three married brothers lived with the family head.

TABLE XI. LINES OF FAMILY MEMBERS

LINES	NO. OF CASES	°/o
1.0	302	81.5
1.5	33	8.9
2.0	25	6.8
2.5	5	1.3
3.0	5	1.3
4.0	1	0.2
TOTAL	371	100.0

In the horizontal analysis we have counted only the number of generations with no regard to the number of lines. For instance two or three married brother without mother or children has been considered as one generation only. Unmarried children of any number have neen counted as half a generation and married persons as one whole generation.

In our analysis we found that the most usual number of generations was 1.5, that is husband and wife with unmarried childred or the western type of family. There were 149 such cases or 40% of the 371 cases considered. Next came 2.5 generations indicating either husband, wife, parents and unmarried children; or husband, wife married children and unmarried grandchildren. The whole distribution is presented in the following table.

TABLE XII GENERATIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS

GENERATION	NO. OF CASES	%
1.0	58	15.6
1.5	148	39.9
2.0	72	19.4
2.5	84	22.6
3.0	4	1.1
3.5	5	1.3
TOTAL	371	100.0

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

3. Family Management.

The management of the family may be divided 592 into two parts; the management of the more impor- 596 tant affairs, which is in the hands of the family head, who in China is usually the husband or father; and the management of the routine business which is in the hands of the family manager, usually the wife or mother. The purpose of the present analysis is to show where the responsibility for these functions lies in Ching Ho.

We found that of the 371 families ten had women as family heads, and of these nine were widows without husband or son, and only in one case did the widowed mother take the position over the heads of her married sons. From this we can infer that the family heads are usually the husband, father or son, and that the widowed mother rarely takes the position of family head if there is any other qualified member of the family.

But when we came to consider the work of family manager the position was changed. Although in the majority of cases it was still the husband and father who actually managed the family affairs, yet number of female managers was very large, amounting to 129 or 37.4% of the 344 families where the managers were known to the investigators, 73 were wives and 42 mothers. The distribution is presented in Table VIII.

4. Marital Status

In considering the marital status we have only in- 162 cluded those qualified for marriage. In this case the

TABLE XIII. PERSONNEL OF FAMILY MANAGERS

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PERSONNEL	NO. OF CASES	%
Male	215	62.5
Husband	205	
Son	7	
Father	3	
Female	129	37.5
Wife	73	
Mother	42	
Widow	9	
Daughter in law	2	
Daughter	1	
Mother in law	1	
Aunt	1	
TOTAL	344	100.0
Unknown	27	

162 age of 16 has been used as a dividing line, although the age varies from 14 to 16 in different places according to custom and legislation. In Ching Ho there were 1260 persons in the families above the age of 16 years, and 557 below that age.

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

TABLE XIV. MARRIAGEABLE POPULATION IN THE FAMILIES

Marriageability	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Marriageable over 16 years	1,260	69.3	630	66.0	630	73.0
Unmarriageable undea 16 years	557	30.7	324	34.0	233	27.0
Total	1,817	100.0	954	100.0	863	100.0

Among the 1260 persons counted as marriageable 804 or 64.3% had been married for the first time, but when we counted those who had been widowed, and those who had remarried we found that 1,003 persons or 80.2% of the marriageable persons were or had married. Turning to the other side we found that there were only 248 or 19.8% who were not were not married. Careful examination of our figures revealed to us some rather striking facts which deserve special attention. We found that of the 1003 married people, 555 were females and only 448 males, while among the unmarried there were 175 males and only 73 females. The larger number of females in the married class was accounted for by the 134 widows as compared with only 40 widowers, a proportion of 3.35 to 1. Two reasons may be given for this, firstly, that on on the whole women live longer than men, and often

162 outlive their husbands; and secondly, that after the [587] death of a wife a great number of men re-marry, while relatively few widows marry again. This statement is proved in Table XVI by the large number of re-marriages among the as men compared with the women.

TABLE XV. MARITAL STATUS OF FAMILY POPULATION

MARITAL STATUS	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀
Married	1,003	80.2	448	71.9	555	88.4
Married[1]	804	64.3	390	62.6	414	66.0
Widowed	174	13.9	40	6.4	134	21.3
Remarried	20	1.6	18	2.9	2	0.3
Concubine	5	0.4	0	0.0	5	0.8
Unmarried	248	19.8	175	28.1	73	11.6
Not engaged	244	19.5	174	27.9	70	11.2
Engaged	4	0.3	1	2	3	0.4
Total	1,251	100.0	623	100.0	628	100.0
Unknown	9					

[1] Married here means married for the first time and both husband and wife still living.

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

The reason for the large number of unmarried males compared with unmarried females may be answered in two ways; either the man is marrying at a later age than the women, or more males remain single. The first suggestion will be discussed in the next section, but here it may be remarked that in most cases men do marry at a later age than women. It is very difficult to determine the second suggestion, as a person may live a single life up to the age of 50 years and then marry. The only way in which we can make a tentative guess is by comparing the number of unmarried persons of both sexes over a certain

TABLE XVI MARITAL STATUS OF STORE POPULATION

MARITAL STATUS	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	°/o	No.	°/o	No.	°/o
Married	389	73.1	353	71.6	36	92.3
Married[1]	370	69.5	340	69.0	30	77.0
Widowed	9	1.7	4	0.8	5	12.8
Remarried	10	1.9	9	1.8	1	2.5
Unmarried	143	26·9	140	28.4	3	7.7
Totol	532	100 0	493	100.0	39	100.0
Unknown	3		3		0	

[1] Married for the first time and both husband and wife living.

162 age. If we take the age of 50 years we find there are several single females but not one male who has not been married, which seems to point to the fact that males do not remain single all through life, but that there is very little chance for a single female to marry after middle life.

A store population is not so convenient for comparison as a family population as many people who belong to a family live in the store. In this case we should naturally expect to find more single people, and this occurred in Ching Ho where the percentage of single people in the stores was 26.9% as against 19.8% in the families.

5. Marriage Rate.

The term "marriage rate" has two meanings: number of *marriages* per thousand of the population; or number of *persons* married per thousand of the population. We Can count marriages occuring between a man and woman of the same locality as one marriage, but it is difficult to analyse when a man marries outside the community. Even if we use the method of counting the rate in persons we have the danger of counting the same person twice. The best method would would be to count men and women each in their native places, but it is often very difficult to trace people who have married and left their homes. In this case we have counted the men who belong to the community, and the girls who have married into the community. In most cases these will about balance the women who have married outside the com-

munity and we may expect to get a marriage rate 162
which is very near to the real rate.

Among the 1819 living in the families we found cnly nine married pairs, or eighteen single persons married during the year, a rate of about 9.9 per 1000. Marriages in a store population cannot be counted in pairs, as only husbands usually work in the stores, the wives remaining in their native places. In Ching Ho there were eight persons married nuring the current year, a rate of 13.1 per 1000. Averaging the total store and family population; we have a marriage rate of 10.7 per 1000.

6. Age at Marriage.

In the minds of both Chinese and foreigners the 582
system of early marriages has long been considered 162
as a great curse to China, and the general impression has been that most Chinese people are married at about the age of 16 years. A glance at the following table will show the fallacy of such generalizations. Although a number of persons have been married at 16 years, it will be seen that it is neither the usual nor the average age. As we can see from the table, the modal age was 19 years, and the average for all the persons studied was 20 years.

TABLE XVII DISTRIBUTION OF MARRIAGE AGE[1]

582
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AGE PERIODS	TOTAL		MALE	FEMALE
	NO.	%		
11	2	0.2	2	0
12	6	0.5	3	3
13	11	0.9	4	7
14	55	4.5	27	28
15	63	5.1	31	32
16	148	12.1	75	73
17	96	7.8	57	39
18	150	12.3	84	66
19	163	13.3	95	68
20	99	8.1	53	46
21	68	5.6	46	22
22	66	5.4	38	28
23	54	4.4	40	14
24	71	5.8	51	20
25	31	2.5	22	9
26	35	2.8	22	13
27	31	2.5	25	6
28	13	1.1	12	1
29	17	1.4	11	6
30-34	25	2.0	20	5
35-29	11	0.9	6	5
40-	9	0.7	6	3
Total	1,224	100.0	730	494

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[1] Inclndes only these who marriage age has reported.

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

Another popular prevailing impression is that 162
boys marry at an even earlier age than girts, but our 582
enquires in Ching Ho have not supperted this hypothesis. While there is not a great difference, yet the figures show that the average age of men at marriage has been 20.3, while that for girls has been 19.3.

7. Comparative Ages of Husband and Wife.

Another interesting study has been that of the comparative ages of husband and wife. It is usually thought that, while in Western countries the wife is younger than the husband, the reverse is the case in China, but in the 697 cases where we were able to make a study we found a much larger percentage of cases where the husband was older then wife.

TABLE XVIII SENIORITY OF HYSBAND AND WIFE

SENIORITY	NO. OF CASES	°/o
Husbadd Older	427	61.4
Wife older	177	25.4
Same age	93	13.2
Total	697	100.0

In examining the differences in years we found some interesting results. Glancing over the following table the first thing that strikes us is the much greater age of husbands. No wife is more than eight years older than her husband, while there are five cases where husbands are 16 years older than their wives. The average years of seniority in the case of wives is only 2.4 years as against 4.8 years in the case of husbands.

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TABLE XIX DISTRIBUTION OF YEARS OF SENIORITY

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582

YERBS OF SENIORITY	SENIOR HUSBANDS	SENIOR WIVES
1	46	46
2	90	57
3	51	33
4	41	12
5	33	12
6	35	3
7	23	0
8	25	2
9	13	0
10	26	0
11	4	0
12	7	0
13	4	0
14	2	0
15	0	0
16	5	0
Years unknown	22	12
Total	427	177

CHAPTER V.

STORES

1. Introduction.

Ching Ho is well-known as a market town for the 443
collection of grain and for the distribution of manufacturered goods, so that naturally we should expect there to be a large number of stores of considerable size in the town. At the time of the store-to-store canvas there were 122 shops open, and three others which had been closed. The majority of the shops, 107, are situated on the north side of the town and are generally larger than the 15 shops on the south side. On the south side there is only a salt store which has a capital of Mex. $2,000 and employs seven people, while the other fourteen have not more than Mex. $2,000 capital altogether. The reason for this appears to be that the street on the south side is about six feet below the level of the stores which makes shopping and the discharging of commodities very difficult, while on the north side the street and the stores are on the same level.

It is often stated that in China farms and stores 443
are always run as a family concern, but this state- 596
ment is not altogether true. In Ching Ho none of the large stores are run on the family basis, and we found only 27 stores altogether run on this basis, as against 95 stores or 77.9% where the manager em-

443 596 ployed workmen to assist. None of the big grain, clothing, or grocery stores which have a large capital are run by the family. The largest family store found was one with a capital of $500, and the average capital for the other 26 family stores was $90, as compared with the general average of $1,082.

2. Varieties of Stores.

443 Ching Ho has 39 varieties of stores, from the common tea shop to the rare pawnshop. At the time of the survey there were 18 grain shops, almost 15% of the whole number of stores. The others which we found most numerous were cotton goods shops, shops for miscellaneous goods, a shop making a kind of flat cake like a scone, small inns, barbers' shops and restaurants. The whole distribution is given in the table XX:

From our survey we found that only the grain stores collected farm products, and most of the other stores simply supplied the town people, or both the town ond farming population in the distributibe zones described in Chap. II. The number of workers in the 18 grain stores is 123 or 22.9% of the 538 store employees, and the amount of capital held by the grain shops is $70,200 or 53.2% of $132,050, the total estimnted capital in Ching Ho. Moreover, the greater proportion of the local taxes are brought in by the one percent charge on grain sales, and also from special grants from the big stores which are mostly grain shops. So that from these figures it would appear that the collecting of produce in Ching Ho is

STORES

TABLE XX. TYPES OF STORES IN CHING HO.

443

Types	No. of stores.	%
Grain shops	18	14.8
Cotton goods shops	8	6.6
Scone shops	8	6 6
General stores	7	5.7
Small Inns	6	4.9
Barbers' shops	5	4.1
Restaurants	5	4.1
Tea houses	4	3.3
Drug stores	4	3.3
Mutton shops	4	3 3
Ironware stores	4	3.3
Jewellers	3	2.5
Book shops	3	2.5
Shoe shops	3	2 5
Grocery stores	3	2 5
Coffin shops	3	2.5
Cart shops	3	2 5
Kerosene	2	1.6
Coal shops	2	1.6
Incense shops	2	1.6
Flax shops	2	1.6
Peanut shops	2	1.6
Dumpling shops	2	1.6
Smithy	2	1 6
Greengrocers	2	1 6
Noodles shops	2	1 6
All others having only one store	13	10.7
Total	122	100.0

more important than the whole of the distributive trade, and that the prosperity of the town and its institutions depends almost entirely on the grain trade.

3. Size of the Stores.

The size of the shops in Ching Ho Varies from the store with a single owner-operator to the large store employing eighteen people, but the average number of people employed in one store is five. Our enquiry shows that the average number employed in a family store is 4.7 as against 5.15 in the general stores. The explanation for this is that all the family stores are very small, not requiring more than one or two people to run them. From Table XXI we can see that the most frequent number of members in all stores and in the general stores is 3, whereas in the family store the most frequent number is 4, followed by 5 and 6. The largest store is a general store employing 18 persons. and the largest family store employs 10 only.

From Table XXII we see that different types of stores have their own frequent size. Groceries, because of their retail trade, usually employ a big number, the average in Ching Ho being 15. The pawnshop and tea-leaves shop have 12 and 11 respectively, followed by the cotton goods shops with an average of 8.1. Although the average capital of the grain trade is much larger than any other shop except the pawn shop, the personnel is not so big, and the average for all is only 7.2. In Table XXI we show the distribution of stores according to size, and in Table

CHING HO: A SOCIALOGICAL ANALYSIS

TABLE XXI. DISTRIBUTION OF STORE SIZE.

No. of Persons.	Total		Types of Stores.			
			General Stores.		Family Stores.	
	No. of stores.	No. of persons.	No. of stores.	No. of persons.	No. of stores.	No. of persons.
1	5	5	5	5	0	0
2	21	42	17	34	4	8
3	22	66	20	60	2	6
4	20	80	12	48	8	32
5	15	75	10	50	5	25
6	10	60	5	30	5	30
7	7	49	7	49	0	0
8	6	48	4	32	2	16
9	2	18	2	18	0	0
10	7	70	6	60	1	10
11	1	11	1	11	0	0
12	1	12	1	12	0	0
13	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	1	14	1	14	0	0
15	3	45	3	45	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	1	18	1	18	0	0
Total	122	613	95	486	27	127

Mean of stores — $\frac{613}{122}$ = 5+

Mean of general stores — $\frac{486}{95}$ = 5.2

Mean of family stores — $\frac{127}{27}$ = 4.7

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STORES

TABLE XXII. AVERAGE SIZE OF ALL TYPES OF STORES.

TYPES OF STORES.	AVERAGE SIZE
Groceries.	14.0
Pawn shop	12.0
Tea leaves shop	11.0
Cotton goods.	8.1
Grain stores	7.2
Bath house	7.0
Salt store.	7.0
Hardware store.	7.0
Dumpling stores	6.0
Noodles stores.	5.5
Restaurants.	5.2
Dye house.	5.0
Drug stores.	4.5
Pork shops	4.3
Bean curd shops	4.0
Tea houses.	3.8
Kerosene shops.	3.5
Ironmongery shops	3.3
Rope shops	3.0
Fruit stores	3.0
Basket shops.	3.0
Finishing shop for dyes.	3.0
Mutton shops.	2.8
Ornament shops.	2.7
Cart shops.	2.7
Scone shops	2.6
Incense shops	2.5
Coal shops	2.5
Barbers' shopes.	2.4
General stores	2.3
Coffin shops	2.3
Dough nuts shops	2.0
Smithy.	2.0
Awning shops.	2.0
Tobacco shops	2.0
Small inns.	1.3
Shoe shops.	1.3
Weed & insect killer.	1.0
Vegetables.	1.0
Average	4.3

STORES

XXII the average size of the different varieties of store. In computing these figures only the active members have beentaken into account, and we have not considered family members who have little or nothing to do with the running of the store.

In considering the size of the stores we should naturally expect that the amount of business would have some definate correlation with the size of the stores, but since we could not get information as to the amount of business done in the stores we have used the amount of capital of each type of store to indicate the amount of business, and have tried to find the correlation between the store and the capital stock. Table XXIII is the original form for the calculation of the co-efficient of correlation, but since the value of both x and y are so widely different among themselves, any assumed mean or the real mean will get us into difficulties in calculation. So we have used a shorter method by assuming zero as the mean which makes all values in x and y as deviations from the assumed mean. We can easily get the standard deviations by using the ordinary short method formula:

$$\text{S. D.} = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma fd'^2}{n} - \left(\frac{\Sigma fd'}{n}\right)^2}$$

The only difference is the using of the x and y values as deviations instead of getting deviations from any assumed mean or the real mean.

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TABLE XXIII. CORRELATION OF STORE SIZE WITH CAPITAL STOCK

TYPE OF STORE.	STORE SIZE X	X^2	CAPITAL MAX. $. Y	Y^2	XY.
Groceries.	14.0	196.0	3 300	10,890,000	46,200
Pawn shop	12.0	144.0	12,000	144 000,000	144,000
Tea Leaves shop	11.0	121.0	1,000	1,000,000	11,000
Cotton goods	8.1	65.6	2,400	15,210,000	23,080
Grain stores.	7.2	51.8	3,900	15,210,000	28,080
Bath house	7.0	49.0	600	360,000	4,200
Salt stores	7.0	49.0	2,000	4,000,000	14,000
Hardware stores	7.0	49.0	1,000	1,000,000	7,000
Dumpling stores	6.0	36.0	340	115,600	2,040
Noodles stores	5.5	30.3	500	250,000	2,750
Restaurants	5.2	27.0	130	16,900	676
Dye houses	5.0	25.0	200	40,000	1,000
Drug stores	4.5	20.3	1,000	1,000,000	4,500
Pork shops	4.3	18.5	180	32,400	774
Bean curd shops	4.0	16.0	35	1,225	140
Tea houses	3.8	14.4	95	9,025	361
Kerosene shops	3.5	12.3	800	640,000	2,800
Ironware shops	3.3	10.9	45	2,025	149
Flax shops	3.0	9.0	400	160,000	1,200
Peanuts shops	3.0	9.0	150	22,000	405
Basket shops	3.0	9.0	200	40,000	600
Grinding shop	3.0	9.0	20	400	60
Mutton shops	2.8	7.8	100	10,000	280
Ornament shops	2.7	7.3	65	4,225	176
Dart shops	2.7	7.3	150	22,500	405

TABLE XXIII.a CORRELATION OF STORE SIZE WITH CAPITAL STOCK

TYPE OF STORT.	STORE SIZE X	X^2	CAPITAL MAX. $. Y	Y^2	XY.
Scone shops	2.6	6.8	15	225	39
Incense shops	2.5	6.3	75	5,625	188
Coal shops	2.5	6.3	200	40,000	500
Barbers shops	2.4	5.8	40	1,600	96
Miscellaneous	2.3	5.3	130	16,900	299
Coffin shop	2.3	5.3	280	78,400	644
Doughnuts shops	2.0	4.0	10	100	20
Farriers	2.0	4.0	25	625	50
Awning shop	2.0	4.0	150	22,500	300
Tobacco shops	2.0	4.0	50	2,500	100
Small inns	1.3	1.7	10	100	13
Shoe shops	1.3	1.7	5	25	7
Seed shops	1.0	1.0	50	2,500	50
Vegetables	1.0	1.0	5	25	5
Total	165.8	1,051.7	31,655	184,757,925	294,592

$$r = \frac{\frac{294{,}592}{39} - \left(\frac{165.8}{39}\right)\left(\frac{31{,}655}{39}\right)}{\sqrt{\frac{1{,}051.7}{39} - \left(\frac{165.8}{39}\right)^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{184{,}757{,}925}{39} - \left(\frac{31{,}655}{39}\right)^2}} = 0.68 \pm 0.058$$

443

443 From the above calculations we know that the correlation between the store and capital stock is quite significant, the coefficient being 0.68 and the probable error is only 0.058.

4. Years of Business.

To take the number of years during which a business has been established is a fairly good indication of the stability of business conditions, and the existence of of marketing systems. From the history of Ching Ho we should not expect very long business connections. Table XXIV shows that 48 stores or 39.4% have been opened within the last five years, and only two stores have been in existence for more than 100 years. Analysing the data for the recent period in greater detail we find 18 stores have been in existence for one year only, and four stores for less than one year. At first sight this would appear as if business conditions were not so good in the last year asin the previous years, but often the people give nine, ten or eleven months as one year. The general trend of decrease in the number of stores as the years advance is shown in the table XXIV:

5. Affiliation of Stores with Trade Organisations.

441 The stores in Ching Ho do not yet appear to be particularly interested in trade organisations, as out of the 122 only 36, or 30% have any trade affiliation. 17 of these joined the newly created Trades' Union directed by the local Party organisation, and which has only had a very short history from September

STORES

TABLE XXIV. YEARS OF BUSINESS OF ALL STORES

443

Years of business.	stores.	
	No.	°/₀
Under 5	48	39.4
5 - 9	22	18.0
10 - 19	15	12.3
20 - 29	12	9.8
30 - 39	6	4.9
40 - 49	10	8.2
50 - 99	7	5.7
100 and over	2	1.6
Total	122	100.0

1928. Previously there was a Chamber of Commerce 441 of the old type which was supported by most of the stores, and was the most influential in the locality. Al though 7 stores state that they still belong to the Chamber, the Chamber itself does not now exist. The new Union has split the business world in Ching Ho into three divisions, those who support the old Chamber, supporters of the new Union, and the indifferents; and this has entirely destroyed business unity.

Several stores have trade connections with associations in Peking. Ten of the grain stores are members of the Lin Chen Chamber of Commerce (陸陳商會)

441 organised by and for grain merchants; the pawnshop is a member of the Peking Pawnshop Association; and the salt shop has joined the Peking Salt Association.

TABLE XXV. TRADE AFFILIATION OF STORES.

Types of Trade Organisations.	Stores. Number	%
New Trader' Union.	17	13.9
Old Chamber of Commerce	7	5.7
Lin Chen C. of C.	10	8.2
Peking Pawnshop Ass.	1	0.8
Peking Salt Ass.	1	0.8
No affiliation	86	70.5
Total	122	100.0

6. Capital

443 Although Ching Ho is a rural town of onl several hundred families, yet several stores command a capital of more than $10,000, and over 23% have a capital of more than $1,000. This is due to the existence of many grain stores, and large distributive stores, and the pawnshop usually has a large capital in any part of China. Yet the most numerous types of stores are those having a capital of about $100. The distribution can be seen from the following table:

STORES

TABLE XXVI. CAPITAL DISTRIKUTION TF STORES.

Amount of Capital Mex. $	Stores.	
	No.	%
Under 10.	16	13.1
10 - 100	30	24.6
100 - 199	16	13.1
200 - 299	14	11.5
300 - 499	8	6.6
500 - 999	10	8.2
1000 - 1999	11	9.0
2000 - 2999	5	4.1
3000 - 4999	5	4.1
5000 - 9999	3	2.5
over 10,000.	4	3.3
Total	122	100.0

In table XXVII it is interesting to notice how the capital is divided amongst the different types of stores. The pawnshop is first, followed by the grain stores with an average capital of $3,900. These are closely followed by grocery stores, cotton goods stores, salt stores, drug stores, tea leaf stores and hardware stores. The 37 stores comprised under the these headings hold capital of $119,300 or 91.4% of the total capital, while the remaining 95 stores have only $11,245 or 8.6%.

443

TABLE XXVII. AVERAGE CAPITAL OF ALL TYPES OF STORES.

TYPE OF STORE	AVERAGE CAPITAL	NO. OF STORES	TOTAL CAPITAL.
Pawn shop	12,000	1	12,000
Grain stores	3,000	18	70,000
Groceries	3,300	3	9,900
Cotton Goods	2,400	1	2,000
Salt stores	2,000	1	2,000
Drug stores	1,000	4	4,000
Hardware stores	1,000	1	1,000
Tea leaves shop	1,000	1	1,000
Kerosene shop	800	2	1,600
Bath house	600	1	600
Noodles shops	500	2	1,000
Flax shops	400	2	800
Dumpling shops	340	2	680
Coffin shops	280	3	840
Coal shops	200	2	400
Basket shops	200	1	200
Dye house.	200	1	200
Pork shops	180	3	540
Cart shops	150	3	450
Peanuts shops	150	2	300
Awning shops	150	1	150
Miscellaneous goods	130	7	910
Restaurants	130	5	650
Mutton shops	100	4	400
Tea houses	95	4	380
Incense shops	75	2	150
Ornament shops	65	3	195
Tobacco shops	50	1	50
Ironware shops	45	4	180
Barbers' shops	40	5	200
Bean curd shops	35	1	35
Farriers	25	2	50
Grinding shops	20	1	20
Scone shops	15	8	120
Small inns	10	6	60
Dumpling stores	10	1	10
Shoe shops	5	3	15
Vegetable shops	5	2	10
Total		122	130,545

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{130{,}545}{122} = 1070.$$

STORES

In view of the inequality of capital stock we find 443 the average figure of $1,070 worthless as an indication of typical capital for all stores. If we divide the stores into two typeslarge and small, taking $1,000 as the dividing line, we find the two averages of $3,224.3 for the larger stores, and only $132.3 for the small stores.

In the collection of data concerning capital stock we had great difficulty in obtaining accurage figures, as some of the stores refused to answer our questions, and therefore, certain figures are estimates made by observation of the business, and from conversations with the owners; but although the reader is warned against using the figures given as accurate data, yet the general information which they convey is useful for our guidance and further study.

7. Ownership and Value of Store Premises.

From the following table we can see that 77% of 443
the stores are rented, and only 21.3% owned by the 472
occupiers, and in two cases the stores are half owned 427
and half rented.

TABLE XXVIII. OWNERSHIP OF STORE PREMISES.

OWNERSHIP	No.	%
Owner operator	26	21.3
Rented	94	77.0
Half owned	2	1.7
Total	122	100.0

443 There is a wide range in the value of stores from
472 the hut worth a few dollars to the well-built store of
427 $15,000, although the value of the majority is between $100 abd $2,000. Table XXIX gives the values and shows that 91 stores or 74.6% have premises valued between $200 and $1,999. The average value of all premises is difficult to calculate, and values are given

TABLE XXIX VALUE OF STORE PREMISES.

VALUE CLASSES. MEX. $.	NO. OF STORES.	TOTAL VALUE.
0-9	1	5
10-49	3	76
50-99	7	525
100-199	21	2,625
200-299	17	3,825
300-399	11	3,575
400-499	12	4,900
500-999	16	10,000
1000-1999	14	17,500
2000-2999	4	9,000
3000-3999	5	17,500
5000 and over	3	36,000
Total	114	105,530
Unknown	8	

in round numbers in most cases, and with the exception 427
of the first three classes, and the last, the first quartile 443
is used in the calculation to represent the whole class. 472
The last average is the approximate average between the three figures 10,000, 10,000 and 15,000. From the assumptions stated above we can get the average value of all premises in Ching Ho which must of course, have a very large probable error. The average is calculated to be $925.7.

8. Organisation and Management.

91.8% are run under the simple style of a single 472
owner proprietorship; two stores are under the joint 443
control of brothers; and only eight stores, or 6.9% are carried on by partners. Not a single store is organised under the modern method of incorporation, and the lack of this from may be due to the small amount of capital required in the businesses, which can easily be raised by the proprietor himself or with the help of one or two partners.

TABLE XXX. ORGANISATION OF STORES.

TYPES OF ORGANISATION.	STORES	
	NO.	%
Proprietorship	112	91.8
Borthers	2	1.6
Parnership	8	6.6
2 partners	5	
3 "	2	
5 "	1	
Total	122	100.0

472 443 108 stores or 88.5% are managed by the proprietors or their partners, and only 14 stores or 11.5% are able to afford to employ managers to look after the business, and all these stores have a capital of over $1,000. Among these 14 stores six also employ an assistant manager. Not all the big stores are included in these 14, and there are still 13 stores having a capital of $1,000 or more which are managed by the owners themselves, but 7 of these employ an assistant manager who is the real business head.

9. Positions of Store Population.

443 463 In this section we shall only include males above the age of 16 years as there is only one woman in business who keeps a small inn. In addition to the 496 males above the age of 16 years there are also included 42 apprentices younger than 16 years, bringing the total number of male employees to 538. The positions which absorb most poeple are those of clerk, apprentice and manager, which employ in all 406 persons or 75.5% of all the store workers. On the average each store has one clerk, one apprentice, and one manager, although the fact of there being 127 managers to 122 stores needs explanation. This is owing to the fact that in certain partnerships all the partners are active in the business, and it is not possible to distinguish and call one manager and the other assistant. In addition to the ordinary clerks there are 25 accountants and 23 outside workers who carry on special duties in making negotions and studying market conditions. In the ordinary shops the division is not so distinct, and the clerks are

supposed to combine all these duties with their other 443
work of looking after retail sales. 463

TABLE XXXI POSITION OF STORE WORKERS

POSITIONS.	PERSONS.	
	NO.	%
Clerks.	147	27.3
Apprentices	132	24.5
Managers	127	23.6
Accountants	25	4.6
Assistant managers	25	4.6
Outdoor workers	23	4.3
Handicraft workers	21	3.9
Sons of managers	14	2.6
Cooks	14	2.6
Fathers of managers	3	0.6
Third assistants.	2	0.4
Doctors	2	0.4
Pedlers	2	0.4
Unknown.	2	0.4
Total	539	100.0
Less one duplicate	538	

443

10. Years of Service of Store Workers.

464 Here again we have not taken females into our calculations as only one woman holds a regular position in a store; the rest just help in various small ways. In addition to the 496 males there are 42 apprentices below the age of 16 years also included here.

A study of the years of service throws a great deal of light on the turnover or stability of the working force in the stores. In Ching Ho 321 persons or 60.8% have served for less than five years, and 207 or 39.2% for more than five years, which we should consider an indication of labour stability.

In studying the yearly labour turnover we natually expect to find a progressive rate, more dropping out and having to be replaced each year, but in Table XXXII we notice that the data in the column ot "original data" does not conform to this hypothesis. A much smaller number of persons fall within the first period as compared with the second period, and the tenth period, or nine years of service has a very small turnover, while the next period again takes a jump. From our common knowlege it is safe to affirm that the number of new persons in the first period would be at least as large as the second, although there may be times when one year's business may be very good and the next year poor, but the chances are small as compared with normal conditions through these twenty or thirty years we are considering. From what we were able to learn in Ching Ho there were no abnormal conditions present, and the writer feels sure that the sharp

difference is not due to irregularities of business, but 443
to wrong reports being made, as people will often say 464
they have been at a place for one year when the actual

TABLE XXXII. YEARS OF SERVICE OF STORE WORKERS.

YEARS OF SERVICE.	ORIOINAL DATA.	CORRECTED DATA.
Under one Year	35	89.0
1 Year	143	89.0
2 Years	69	69.0
3 „	47	47.0
4 „	27	27.0
5 „	33	33.0
6 „	33	33.0
7 „	24	24.0
8 „	14	14.0
9 „	5	13.0
10 „	21	13.0
11-15 „	27	5.4
16-20 „	19	3.8
21-30 „	26	2.6
30	5	
Total	528	
Unknown	10	

443 464 period is only nine or ten months. we place the difference in the tenth and eleventh periods to this same proclivity for talking in round numbers, and if we average these periods we feel that we shall arrive at a more accurate result. The average length of tenure for the 523 cases is 5.6 years according to the original data, and 5.5 years according to the corrected data, which we should consider a creditable record.

TABLE XXXIII WAGES OF STORE WORKERS.

MONTHLY WAGES IN MEX. DOLLARS	NO. OF PERSONE.
Under one	16
1 - 1.99	39
2 - 2.99	74
3.- 3.99	78
4 - 4.99	54
5 - 5.99	34
- 6 - 6.99	8
7 - 11	6
Total	309

$$\text{Mean} = 4.25 + \frac{-325}{309} = 4.25 - 1.52 = 2.73$$

11. Wages of Store Workers

443 465 Of the 538 workers only 309 or 57.4% receive any kind of monetary payment. The distribution and average payment is preseted in Table XXXIII.

STORES

Here it will be seen that the most general wage 443
is round about Mex. $3 per month, and the average is 465
calcaulated at Mex. $2. 73 per month.* This does not represent the whole wage of a worker as everyone is supplied with board and lodging worth Mex. $5-6 per month. This means than an average worker in Ching Ho receives the value of about Mex. $9 per month or 30 cent per day. The workers also share in the profits, but this is difficult to estimate as the profits vary considerably from year to year and store to store, and from a few dollars to as much as $1,000 for the employed managers.

TABLE XXXIV. NON-SALARIED WORKERS IN THE STORES.

CLASSES	NO. OF PERSONS.
Managers	89
Apprentices	86
Clerks	16
Assistant managers	15
Fathers of managers	3
Thsrd assistant	2
All others	3
Total	219

---

*On the inspection of the original entries we found that the mid-point did not give a fair representation of the class, and as there are far more figures about the round number the first quartile has been considered a better representative figure.

443 Besides the 309 workers who receive regular
465 payment there are 229 workers who only receive board and lodging and a share in the irregular profits, the largest class under this heading being the managers. They do not consider their labour income apart from their capital income, and their income is therefore, impossible to estimate.

The clerks are in most cases friends of the managers or stockholders, helping temporarily in the stores, and assistant managers are generally brothers or relatives of stockholders. They are trested as the proprietor treats himgelf, receiving board, lodging and a reasonable share of the profits.

we notice from the above table that there are 86 apprentices who do not receive any monaetry payment. The usual practice in stores is that for the first year there is no payment, in the second year a few

TABLE XXV. MONEY PAYMENT FOR APPRENTICES.

PAYMENT	NO. OF PERSONS.
No payment	86
Under M. $1.	9
$1 - $1.49	14
$1.50 - $1.99	7
$2.00 - $2.99	12
$3.00 - $3.99	4
Tatal	122

cents will be awarded them for miscellaneous buyings, 443
and in the third year the amount will be raised to $1 465
or more. After these three years of apprenticeship they are promoted to clerkship or some definite position with pay. If there is no suitable position for them they may be still treated as apprentices, but with higher pay. In very small stores, however, the apprentices receive no pay at all.

12. Store Equipment.

we have here taken into account two main types 443
of equipment : cultural facilities and communication 517
facilities. In regard to the first mentioned they are very poorly served. 89 of the stores do not take any kind of newspaper, and 112 have no books at all.

TABLE XXVI. CULTURAL FACILITIES IN THE STORES.

NO. OF EACH KIND.	NEWSPAPERS		BOOKS.	
	NO. OF STORES.	°/o	NO. OF STORES.	°/o
Not one	89	73.0	112	91.8
1	32	26.2	3	2.5
2	1	.8	1	.8
3	0		1	.8
4	0		0	
5	0		1	.8
Above 5	0		4	3.3
Total	122	100.0	172	100.0

443 Reading material is not only scarce but of poor
517 quality. Among the 34 newspapers taken daily only
204 one can be called a standard newspaper, the *Yi Chih
Pao* (益世報). All others are small papers containing only one sheet, usually of stale news, and the lower type of article and novel.

TABLE XXVII. TYPES OF NEWSPAPERS IN THE STORES.

TYPE OF NEWSPAPERS	NO. OF NEWSPAPE
Chun Chiao Pao (群强報)	16
The Pei Hua Real News (實事白話報)	11
The People's Daily (民言日報)	2
The Little Daily (小小日報)	2
The Commercial Daily (商業日報)	1
The Yi Shih Pao (益世報)	1
Shih Pao (實報)	1
Total	34

The quality of the books is also poor. The biggest shop in the town, the pawnshop, has one book only, a pawn lexicon. Four drug stores have some old Chinese medical books. and the rest of the books are all novels of the old type.

13. Communication Facilities.

495 We found that the most popular and convenient means of commuincation is the bicycle, forty-two stores have one or more. The cart is not much used.

STORES

Ching Ho is near to Peping and messages and small 493 parcels can be more quickly delivered by bicycle then by cart. Of course, the bicycle cannot take the place of the cart for the transport of heavy baggage, but during recent years many carts have been siezed by the military authorities, and taxation has been so high, that the cart has become unpopular. Heavy goods are now transported chiefly by working teams of horse or donkey, fifteen stores having working teams to carry goods to and from Peping

TABLE XXVIII. COMMUNICATION FACILITIES IN THE STORES.

NO.	BICYCLES		CARTS.		WORKING TEAMS.	
	No. of stores.	No. of bicycles	No. of stores.	No. of carts.	No. of stores.	No. of temas.
1	37	37	1	1	6	6
2	4	8	1	2	2	4
3	0	0			2	6
4	0	0			5	20
5	1	5			0	0
Total	42	50	2	3	15	36

Other communication facilities include a second 205 class post office which does a considerable volume 206 of work, and a telephone service which can be connected with Peping, although only two stores have taken advantage of this facility. In addition to these 000

554 In addition to these
we found that only one store used the modern type of stove for heating; the rest still use the coal-ball oven. Lighting everywhere is is by means of kerosene lamps, with only some variation in the size of the lamps.

CHAXTER VI.

ECONOMY.

1. Wealth or Property.

An enquiry into the economic phases of social life is usually the most difficult part of a survey because people are immediately on their guard when any question is raised in regard to wealth or property, and enquiries concerning such matters will usually encounter suspicion and arouse bad feeling. The field workers found Ching Ho no exception and had a very difficult time collecting data on this particular phase, and we know that what we are now presenting has not the same accuracy as other acpects of the survey. In order to get as near as possible to a correct figure indirect measures have had to be used, and inferences drawn from other sources.

The first question that has to be answered is whether the people hold property or not. Of course, every store must have some kind of property or capital, so that we will deal with the families first.

In the 371 families investigated we found that there were 139 families who did not possess any property at all, beyond their own personal belongings and a few pieces of furniture. (The term property here means those effects which cen be turned, into money such as land, houses or business investment.) Of the 229 families which have some kind of private

423 property or wealth, ninety have houses only, seventy have both house and land, twenty three have business investments only, while eighteen have all three kinds of property. From this it will be seen that there are only fourteen families owning land as against ninety owning a house only, which seems to point to the fact that people prefer to have their house first before they invest in land.

TABLE XXIX. DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY PROPERTY

PROPERTY OWNERSHIP	NO. OF FAMILIES	PERCENTAGE
No property	139	37.5
House	92	25.1
House and land	70	18.9
Business investment	23	6.2
House, land, businese.	18	4.9
Land	14	3.8
House and business	9	2.4
Land and business	4	1.1
Donkey only	1	0.3
Total	371	100.0

423
565 If we turn our attention to the value of the property of the 229 families, we find that the distribution is fairly equal and that there are no extremely rich people in the town. The average value of property for the 225 families where the value has been known to the field workers is $654.

ECONOMY

TABLE XXX DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY VALUE

423

VALUE (IN MEX. DOLLARS)	NO. OF FAMILIES
0 - 49	25
50 - 99	28
100 - 199	33
200 - 299	19
300 - 399	19
400 - 499	18
500 - 749	32
750 - 999	13
1,000 - 1,499	12
1,000 - 1,999	9
2,000 - 2,999	11
3,000 - 4,999	3
5,000 -	3
Total	225
Value unknown	4

2. Housing

The first question that arises in regard to housing is that of ownership. In Ching-ho there are 183 fam-

423 ilies or 50.3% who own their own houses, which even when combined with the few cases of pawned houses, is not a very high percentage.

TABLE XXXI. OWNERSHIP OF HOUSES

OWNERSHIP	NO. OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Owned	183	50.3
Rented	174	47.8
Pawned	7	1.9
Total	364	100.0
Unknown	7	

In tabulating the value of the houses, only those owned by the dweller are considered here, because it is impossible for the renters to give even the approximate value of the house. Most of the houses are valued at $100 to $200 dollars. The average value for the 170 houses where the value is known is $384.

TABLE XXXII. DISTRIBUTION OF VALUE OF HOUSES

VALUE ($)	NO. OF CASMS	PERCENTAGE
Under 50	16	9.4
50 - 99	35	20.6
100 - 199	32	18.9
200 - 299	27	15.9
300 - 499	23	13.5
500 - 999	24	14.1
1,000 - 1,999	9	5.3
2.000 -	4	2.4
Total	170	100.0
Unknown	13	

ECONOMY

Although we could not obtain the value of the rented houses, it was possible to find the amount of rent paid by the tenants, most of whom are paying a rent of less than $1.00 for the month. The average rent paid is 72 cents for the month or $8.64 for the year. 427

TABLE XXXIII. DISTRIBUTION OF RENT

AMOUNT (¢)	NO. OF CASES	PEREENTAGE
No rent	13	7.5
Under 10	1	0.6
10 - 19	22	12.7
20 - 29	46	26.6
30 - 39	13	7.5
40 - 49	9	5.2
50 - 59	17	9.8
60 - 99	13	7.5
$1.00 - $1.49	18	10.4
$1.50 - $1.99	5	2.9
$2.00 -	16	9.3
Total	173	100.0
Unknown	1	

Turning our attention from the financial aspect of the housing problem to the physical aspect we find that the average number of rooms per family is 3.94. 362

362 If we divide this average number of rooms by the average numaer of persons per family we find that the per capita number of rooms is only 0.8. The distribution of rooms among the families is as follows :—

TABLE XXXIV. NUMBER OF ROOMS PER FAMILY

NO. OF ROOMS	NO. OF CASES	%
1	92	25 6
2	64	17.8
3	87	24.2
4	24	6.7
5	27	7.5
6	11	3.1
7	10	2.8
8	10	2.8
9	7	1.9
10	4	1.1
11 - 15	14	3.9
16 - 20	5	1.4
21 -	5	1.4
Total	360	100.0
Unknown	11	

ECONOMY

3. Agricultural Land

As previously mentioned there are 103 families 423 owning some amount of land, but most of these land owners have only about a dozen mow of land, and only four families have more than one hundred mow. The average amount owned by each family is 29 mow, too small an amount to maintain a family of five on a decent scale. The distribution is as follows:

TABLE XXXV. DISTRIBUTION OF LAND AREA

NO. OF MOW	NO. OF FAMILIES	PERCENTAGE
Under 5	13	13.3
5 - 9	18	18.4
10 - 14	15	15.3
15 - 19	13	13.3
20 - 29	9	9.2
30 - 49	15	15.3
50 - 99	11	11.2
100 - 199	4	4.2
Total	91	100.0
Unknown	1	

The average value of the land owned by the various families is $605, distributed as follows:

TABLE XXXVI. DISTRIBUTION OF LAND VALUE

423

VALUE (DOLLBRS)	NO. OF CASES	NO. OF CASES
Under 100	7	7.1
100 - 199	16	16.3
200 - 299	8	8.2
300 - 399	13	13.3
400 - 499	15	15.3
500 - 479	10	10.2
750 - 999	9	9.2
1,000 - 1,999	15	15.3
2,000 - 2,999	2	2.0
3,000 -	3	3.1
Total	98	100.0
Unknown	8	

423 Only 24 families rent land from others snd six
427 families both own their own land and at the same time rent land from others. This percentage is relatively low in comparison with other distribts of China and in comparison with the housing situation.

TABLE XXXVII. OWNERSHIP OF LAND

OWNERSHIP	NO. OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Owned	116	79.5
Rented	24	16.4
Half owned	6	4.1
Total	146	100.0

ECONOMY

The acreage of the rented land is much smaller 427 than the acreage of owned land, the average size of land rented by the 24 families being only 9.6 mow as compared wlth 29 mow of owned land. Most of the families rented only a few mow of land.

TABLE XXXVIII. ACREAGE OF RENTED LAND.

AREA-MOW	NO. OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Under 5	6	25.0
5 - 9	13	54.2
10 - 19	2	8.3
20 - 29	2	8.3
30 - 49	1	4.2
Total	24	100.0

If we combine together the land held under these 423 there types of ownership we shall get the land area of each farmstead or holding. The average size of farmstead or holding is 26 mow with most of the distribution in the first four classes.

TABLE XXXIX. SIZE OF HOLDINGS

SIZE (MOWS)	NO. OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Under 5	19	15.6
5 - 9	30	24.6
10 - 14	15	12.3
15 - 19	15	12.3
20 - 29	10	8.2
30 - 49	16	13.1
50 - 99	13	10.7
100 - 199	4	3.3
Total	122	100.0
Unknown	8	

CHING HO: A SOCIALOGICAL ANALYSIS

4. Marketing

361 443 No detailed treatment of the problem of marketing will be presented here, as the Economics Department of Yenching University has undertaken a specific study of the marketing situation in Ching-ho, and the reader is referred to their report for further information. But here we wish th give some specific data which we might call lhe ecological phase of the problem.

As we have mentioned in the chapter on the history and geography of the town the market of Ching-ho has in more ways than one made very good adjustments with the markets of the surrounding area. In the first place there is the date of the market. Ching-ho has always held its market on the odd days in the Chinese calender while the three adjacent markets, Sha ho. How Chuan and Ping Si Tu, have held their markets on the even days of the month. Another adjustment is in regard to the area from which Ching-ho market draws its supplies. Because of the better price and ready market, Ching-ho, has always drawn from an area of two-third, of the territory between itself and other markets.

443 Since quantitative analysis of commoctities is exclusively economic and is being studies by the Department of economics, we turned our attention to the problem of attendance. Our field workers have taken records of the attendanes on twenty days during the later part of October at the hours of 7, 8, 9, and 10 A. M. every morning. Even days and odd days are grouped nnder the heads of market day and non-

market-day respectively. We have found that the average attendance on market days is 513 persons, which number will naturally include any town people who happen to be in the street. So that if we minus the average attendance or the non-market days from the attendance on market days we get the number of persons who come exclusively for the business of marketing, that is 310 persons.

TABLE XL. MARKET ATTENDANCE-OCTOBER.

RECORDING DAY	MARKET DAY	NON-MARKET DAY	NON-MARKET DAY AS 100.
1 st	602	221	272
2 nd	892	195	457
3 rd	603	254	238
4 th	548	263	208
5 „	678	181	375
6 „	526	283	186
7 „	525	222	236
8 „	385	152	253
9 „	192	83	232
10 „	179	176	103
Average	513	203	254

It is interesting to note that the attendance on market days appears to decrease, while the attendance on non-market days does not show this tendency so clearly. The reason is that we are coming to the end of the period for the marketing of the Autumn grain, and also that attendance on non-market days is less influenced by the selling of grain, and more influencec by the social needs and daily necessities of the community.

Another point to which we have paid some atten tion is the hour of the market. Starting from 7 a.m. we have found that there is an average attendance of 256 on market days, as against 141 on non-market days. The market reaches its climax at 9 a.m. with an attendance of 678, more than three times the attendance of non-market days. Then on market days the attendance appears to drop from 10 a.m. to about noon, while on non-market days it continues to increase. It is unfortunate that we did not take records more times during the day so that we could compare the attendances from the opening until the closing of the market. In the Autumn the market will probably start at 6 a.m. and then continue to fall until noen, while during the Spring wheat market it will probably start earlier, and reach its climax earlier.[1]

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[1] A detailed study of similar nature is under way for the year of 1931.

TABLE XLI. MARKETING HOURS OF THE DAY 443

TIME IN MORNING	MARKET DAY	NON-MARKET DAY	NON-MAKRET DAY AS 100
7	256	141	182
8	650	206	316
9	678	220	308
11	467	251	186
Average	513	205	248

5. Occupation and Income.

The classification of occupation has been most 463 difficult, because there are so many kinds of work which are not standardised, and do not fit into any class, but finally we have adopted twelve classes, and put the remander into an "unclassified" group. In the considering of occupational distribution only the the males have been taken into account, because of the 630 female members belonging fo the 371 families studied, only 18 have any definite occupation; fifteen are doing domestic work in other households and three are midwrives The 39 women mentioned in the stores both help their husbands in the business and at the same time manage their family affairs. (In the enquiry we have only included those people above sixteen years of age, because children cannot be said to have a definite occupation). In the stores it is natural that most of the workers should come under the heading of merchants, but there are several in other categories such as cooks (see chap. V Stores.) In the families we have a greater variety of occupations, but the largest class is still the merchants which comprises 169 persons or 29.1%, followed by the farmers who number 127 or 22%.

TABLE XLII. OCCUPATIONAL COMPOSITION

OCCUPATION	NO. OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Trade	169	29.1
Agriculture	127	22.0
Public service	50	8.6
Handicraft	39	6.7
Communication	33	5.7
Personal service	29	5.0
Libourers	29	5.0
Apprentices	26	4.5
Coolies	23	4.0
Cooks	22	3.8
Teachers	5	0.9
Doctors	4	0.7
Unclassified	24	4.1
Total	580	100.0
Unemployed	46	
Unknown	20	
Less those celow 16	16	
Grand total	630	

Some notes may be necessary to explain the above table. Public service includes government 463 officials, soldiers, and police; "labourers" includes workers in factories and work which does not require much skill; "Coolie" includes workers who contribute power; while "unclassified" includes more than twenty types of big and small jobs. We have included 46 unemployed, and 20 whose occuqation is not known, but there are also sixteen persons under 16 years of are included in this table who should bo subtracted from the final total.

We are not able to present any statistical figures 434 in regard to income, as in most cases Chinese workers do not have a definite wage, especially in the case of farmers and owneroperators of stores. Workers in the "communica tion" class, handicraft workers, and some others have a definite wage for the day's work, but their work is not regular, and they cannot say when they will be without work for several days. Store employees are paid a definite monthly wage, in addition to board and lodging, and a small share in the profits. Detailed figures for such are presented in the following chapter when dealing with other items in the analysis of stores.

CHAPTER VII

ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

1. The Chamber of Commerce.

441 575 The Chamber of Commerce is usually the most important and influential economic organisation in every city and town in China, showing the power of trade in the life of modrn society. Ching Ho is no exception, although the history of the Chamber of of Commerce here only dates back to 1919, and was the result of an incident in the town at the time. One store keepers in the town was arrested by the police on a slight pretext, and the merchants acted together and were able to affect the release of the man. After this incident the merchants felt that there was need for some organisation through wbich they could act in case of necessity, and thus the Chamber of Commerce was formed. As there is no such organisation in the Wan Ping territory the Chamber was not recognized by the County Government, but two of its officers were recognized as Commercial Trustees of the town.

The Chamber had no office of its own and no regular meetings or business. It was controlled by a president, a vice-president and a council of fifteen store representatives. In the first instance the officers and rspresentatives were all grain merchants who are the most numerous ane powerful in Ching Ho, but later the cotton goods merchants succeeded in obtain-

ind places for two of their representatives. This was 441
the only change that took place after the Chamber 575
was founded. About 60 stores were regular members ef the association, and payed dues, but the Chamber had also the right to levy definite contributions from other stores who were not members, as a recognition of the fact that the Chamber was the organisation which looked after the welfare and interests of the trading Center.

The chief purpose for which the Chamber existed was to protect the traders from abuse from the govrnement, from soldiers, and from bandits and thieves. They dealt with all requests for financial aid from the central and local authorities or from the resident soldiers. They almost entirely financed their local guard, and also give liberally in aid of the social welfare of the community.

The Koomintang or Nationalist Party encourage a different type of organisation and with the setting up of the Party machinery in the town the Chamber has suffered a set back. The Party authorities succeeded in persuading some of the merchants to leave the old association, and to organise into a union, but the Chamber itself has pursued a course of passive resistance. The leaders of the Chamber have not joined the new organisation, and are awaiting a favourable opportunity to revive the activities of the Chamber of Commerce.

2 The Merchants' Union.

Immediately after the establishment in the town 441
of the Party organisation they called a meeting of 656

the merchants when about sixty seven stores were represented together with two local Party directors, and one representative from the county Party organisation. At this meeting it was decided to form a new union and three executive officers wers elected whose work was to be practically the same as that formerly performed by the Chamber of Commerce. As previously mentioned the leaders of the Chamber of Commerce were not in favour of the new organisation, and the lack of their moral and financial support has been a handicap to the work of the new union. Although the new association has the Party authorities behind it it lacks local co-opersation, and has not the same influence which was wielded by the old Chamber of Commerce. The union has been divided into three divisions-employers, employees and pedlars. In most towns the second class of employees is usually the strongest force, as they need more help and protection than the other two classes, but in Chiug Ho it is the employers who control the Union, so that the new Union is very little different from the old Chamber. There has simply been a change of personnel from one faction to another. The Party authorities have left the town but the new Union has retained its power, altnough for some time there have been rummours that the old leaders intend to re-establish the Chamber of Commerce. Much will depend upon the attitude of the government. In Shanghai and Peping the Chambers of Commerce have been able to withstand the new unions, and are still the most influential economic organisations. If the government is prepared to adopt a liberal attitude it may be possible for both organisations to work together in Ching Ho. 441 656

3 The Association for the Protection of Green Crops.

The next important organization in the town is the 241 farmers association which is called by various names in 625 different districts: either The Agricultural Association, The Association for the protection of Green Crops (The *Ching miao Hai*) or The Farmers' Union. The first name is an official title given by the old government, the second is the popular name, and third is the name given by the Kuomentang to the reorganised association under their direction. In Ching Ho we found the second and third types of association only.

The Association for the Protection for the Protection of Green Crops is an organisation purely for self protection. It has a long history dating back severa hundreds of years, and has enjoyed great popularity in many parts of China, especially in the Province of Hopei. The internal organisation is very simple. There are five heads, (one serving as treasurer,) who own large areas of land, and, and who are elected by the consensus of opinion of larger land owners. Thus although the tenants receive an equal amount of protection, they, have no voice in the administrative side of their work, and the organisation is really an associotion of land owners. These heads assess the dues to be paid, with the result that quite often the tenants are paying a full share while the larger land owners are carrying less than their weight.

The primary work of the association is the protection of green crops in the Spring and Autumn, and four guards are employed for this purpose. On the fifteenth day of the sixth month of the Chiness year the Chinese year the heads call togother the members or the farmers who need protection, in the Temple of the Three Sages, and there make offerings to the God of War or Kuan Ti (關帝) and at the same time the guards commence their watch in the fields. The guards have power to arrest any person or animal who trespasses on the fields or damages the crops in any way. The offenders are brought before the heads who name the amount of compensation to be paid, By the middle of the ninth month most of the crops have beed harvested,and the heads again gather the members together for another offering, and then the work of protection is suspended and the expenses are aportioned among the members according to the number of acres which each holds. The watch for the wheat crops only lasts one month, from the twentieth of the fourth month to the twentieth of the fifth month and the number of guards is increased or decreased according to the amout of land under wheat in that particular year. No special offerings are made during this short watch.

During recent years the Association has taken up other kinds of work, the most important being the answering of requests for financial assistance from the soldiers and the district government. For instance, in the summer of 1928 the district government borrowed $500 from the Association, which they guaranteed by land taxes. There were also a number of cases where soldiers living in the town demanded carts and fuel, and $200 were spent for that purpose, and in addition some $30 has been spent in support

of the local school and the police. Although the field 241
worker tried to get informatiou regarding the finances 625
of the Association from different sources the heads refused to give any pertculars, so that no accurate accurate accounts can be given here, but from conversations with the heads and other leaders in the community we have been able to make a rough estimate. As the expenses determine the income we give our estimate of expenses first.

TABLE XLIII. EXPENDITURE OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROTECTION OF CROPS (1928-1929)

NATURE OF EXPENSES	AMOUNT OF EXPENSES (IN MOLLARS MAX.)
Alvancement for land tax	500
Fuel for resident soldiers	200
Miscellane expenses in connection with requests of soldiers	100
Contribution to local school and police	30
Office expenses	20
Offerings	20
Wages for guards	40
Interest	30
Total	840

241 625 The first item has been financed by a loan, and it is hoped to clear this off by the land-owners paying their tax to the district government, but since the change in the district government, a rumour has spread that this is not the case, and that the land tax should still be paid to the county government. The method of collection is by apportionment of the expenses among the farmers according to the acreage of land held by each, and in 1928 this assessment was 25 cents for each *mow* of land. There are 1700 *mows* of land under the protection of the Associatinn so that if we multiply the amount of land by the charge per *mow* we get an estimated income of $425. This income does not balance the expenditure, but the $500 loan was not apportioned amonget the farmers in the ordinary way, but secured by a loan, so that the nett expenses are only $329. Allowing a deduction for land which may not be under crops we should get an income and expenditure which would practically balance. Since the setting up of the Party organisations msst of the Protection associations have been taken over by them and re-organised into Farmers' Unions, but because of the strength of its leaders the Ching Ho Association has been able to retain its position in the community.

It is important to notice that this Association only has control of the land north of the Ching River, which coincided with the political territory. The south side which does not have independent political organisation is protected by the Association in Kuan Hsi Chuan (關西莊) about three *li* east of Ching Ho. This association controls 4,800 *mows* of land and

employs 13 guards. Owing to its larger area, and 241
the protection which it receives from the Peping 625
municipal government the expenses of the Association are much smaller, amounting to only 15 cents for the past year.

4. The Farmers' Union.

As in the case of the Merchants' Union, the Farm- 241
ers' Union is an organisation for the whole district, 625
and is created under the direction of the Party authori- 659
ties, with the difference that although the Merchants' Union has gained a footing in Ching Ho the Farmers' Union has not been able to take the place of the powerful Association for the Protection of Green Grops, and is therefore, only a district Association, and has not affected Ching Ho itself.

The Farmers' Union has had a long history in the southern provinces, but its first appearance in Ching Ho was in November 1928 when the local Party authorities summoned together the heads and associates of the seventeen villages in the east region of the Fifth district of Wan Ping. The Chairman of the county Party came down to make a speech, and appointed five directors, together with one member from the local Party organisation, to start a local Farmers' Union. The chief work appears to have been done by this local member who has spent much time in the villages, calling together mass meetings of the family heads, and explaining to them the advantages to be obtained by organising into such a Union. If they are unfriendly he has had to try to persuade the farmers personally. After he has obtain-

241 ed enough support he takes along a policeman, calls
625 a meeting of the farmers, and the Union is started.
659 After about one month's work this man has been successful in organising eight village Unions into the Fifth district Union, but he was not able to get the support of Ching Ho, and the membership in the other village is very small, amounting to only about 12% of the families. The membership of the eight village Unions is as follows :—

TABLE XLIV. MEMBERSHIP OF FARMERS' UNIONS

ORDER OF UNION	TOTAL MEMBERS
1st	18
2nd	18
3rd	18
4th	11
5th	23
6th	18
7th	11
8th	35
Total	152

Each Union is supposed to support itself financially, and to pay something in support of the district Union, but in most cases they have simply taken the position of the Association for the Protection of Groen Crops with its power of charging the land owners, so that really the new Unions are simply the old Association under a new name and new managment. 241 625

Since the student trouble all Party members have 659 left the town, together with the organiser and his associates. No new Union has since been created, and it is doutbful whether the new leaders can hold their power for very long in face of the indifference of the people, and the reaction in favour of the leaders of the old association.

CHAPTER VIII.

POLITICS.

1. Public Safety.

625 The public safety of the town is looked after by a police force maintained by the government, and by the local guard, the organisation of which is in the hands of the people. The south side of the town which is under the political control of the Municipal Government of Peping is watched by a few policemen staioned there, while the north side maintains a branch office of the county police. and a large number of guards.

The local guards are only appointed temporarily at about the end of September when the government asks each village in the east region to send a certain number of guards to the central organization. Five of the big villages send two guards each, seven medium sized villages send one each, three of the small villages contripute money towards the hiring of half a guard each, and the town sends ten persons, making a total of twenty eight guards. One village in the northeastern corner of the district does not make any centribution owing to its distance from the headquarters, and is left to make its own arrangements for the protection of its citizens.

There is no officer for direction and supervision, and all the guards are under the police head, and carry out the ordinary duties of a policeman. In the day time they patrol the highways of the sixteen villages. dividing into two groups of ten, and the remainder stay in the police station to help maintain order in the town. At night there are two groups of five who watch the town only. Sometimes the guard are ordered to go to the villages to obtain fuel or carts for the resident soldiers; at other times they accompany the regular police force in the pursuit of robbers.

After the coming in of the Party Organisation the local guards were not called together in September, but during March 1929 the Provincial Government issued an order that every village should call together the local guard immediately. The new village head in consultation with his subordinates soon had the guards organised as usual, and the guard is now finaned by a small contribution ranging from 10 cents to $1.50 from the sixty wealthy stores, and it may now be that the guard will continue in existence during the whole year, instead of being a temporary institution for protection during the winter months.

The south side of the town is looked after by the ninth station of the first police district of Peping north. The station was founded in 1925 and has one officer who receives $20 a month, two subordinate officers who ate paid $11 a month, and eight policemen who receive $8 a month only. Five of the policeman live in nearby villages and only return to the town when another five are sent to take their places. The station is financed entirely by a house tax collected from the 360 families in this area. There are four rates: 5 cents, 10 cents, 20 cents and 30 cents according to

625 the size and condition of the house. The total expenses including wages and office expenses of $4 a month, amount to $110 a monlh, but in addition there is an extra $200 for uniforms and fur overcoats for the officers and men.

The north police station has one officer, one subordinate officer, and eleven policemen, and is of a higher class than the station on the south side. It has charge of sixteen villages in the eastern area of the district. In the western area there is a branch office maintaining one subordinate officer and six policemen. There are also four special stations, two in the road taxation bureaux, one at Hot Spring's Sanitorium, and one in a Japanese mining plant, the expenditure for which is about $150 per month with $500 additional expenses for the whole year. This money comes from three sources, the ½% taxation on grain sales, a small toll on carts and animals passing over the roads, and contributians from various Associations for the Protection of Grops in the eastern villages, and the balance is usually made up by the Chamber of Commerce.

625
722 During the emergency month in 1918 when the Fengtien troops were retreating from Peping to Mukden a body of volunteers was organised to help the police and guard in the defence of the district against both soldiers and robbers. Every family was supposed to contribute at least one member to answer any emergency calls under the direction of a president and two vice-presidents. The signal was given in one village, and the volunteers turned out with knives, sticks and farm implements, and succeeded in scaring

away the marauders. Since the coming of the Party 722 organisation the president has resigned, and the 625 organisation has lapsed.

2. Self Government.

In Ching-ho we have district self-government and 634 village self-government, the former having the advantage of knowing the county authorities and being the link between the official connty government and the local self government. The village and the county government have not many points of contact and the district government has taken advantage of this position, and holds the most important position in rural politics.

The self-government movement was started in 1915 when a school was established in Peping to give suitable training to would-be officers. Although the word used is *self government* the officers were appointed by the government direct, the village heads by the county government, and the district trustees by the governor of the Capital District of Peping. Two trustees were appointed for the Fifth District of Wan Ping, and two for every other village, all of whom continued to serve until the coming of the Party Organisation

Although there are these two systsms of self- 634 government in Ching-ho, yet in practice they work 622 very much together, using the same office, and dealing with the same problems. but it is the district self-government association that is the real functional organisation with the help of the village self-government associationn. All financial matters come under

634 the control of the Association for the Protection of 622 Green Crops. In matters concerning the whole district the authorities have the right to call the village heads to the town and order them to carry out the instructions of the higher authorities. The village heads, although they do not work much within the village, have a geat deal of influence in district self-government matters. The Chamber of Commerce also has a good deal of influence in the town and district, and in fact the Chamber of Commerce, the village heads and the Trustees for the district control the politics of Ching-ho.

The Party organisation in Ching-ho first attacked the question of finance, and the deputy for the village heads who had done a great deal on their behalf and under the direction of the district authorities, was arrested, and personally fined $120 with the purpose of defeating the village head, who withdrew from public life.

The district trustees continued to serve for several months until the county government issued an order for the re-organisation of both self-government associations. The finances were also taken over by a committee of Party members, but we will discuss the financial aspect later.

631 In January 1929, the provincial authorities determined to re-model the system of self-government after the Shansi province pattern. According to this system five families are to be organized into a neighbourhood under one head, and every twenty five families are to be gathered into a *lu* with another head. A village of more than one hundred families

is to be organized into a political area with a village 631 head, and several associates according to the number of families. Above this village is to be the district office under a head who serves as a link between the self-governing villages and the official county government. This district head is also the head of the local police. The election of the village head [666] is supposed to take place at a mass meeting, but in Ching Ho only the leaders were present and no formal vote was taken, and the office was taken by the associate of the former village head, with a leader in the Association for the Protection of Green Crops, as associate head. The district head has not yet been elected, and the work is being done temporarily by the police head who is a government officer, and under the direct control of the county police office, thus destroying the very essence of self-government. In an effort to remedy such a position the provincial government has decided to open training schools for district heads, so that men may be trained to serve in their own districts. Not much has been done in the matter of village self-government, except the re-establishment of the local guard.

3. Local Party.

When we use the word "Party" we always mean 665 the Kuomintang or Nationalist Party, as that is the only Party in China at present. In November, 1928, the County Party Organnisation appointed a board of directors of three men : one standing member, one training member, and one publicity member, to organise the members of the Party into a formal Party

665 organisation; but unfortunately there are only seven Party members in the whole district, and they do not not need much organisation. Therefore the first work that the directors assumed was the formation of a Merchants' Union, followed by the setting up of a Farmers' Union, and then a Women's Union. They succeeded in getting more than a dozen people into the first two Unions, but they failed to get sufficient members for the Women's Union.

In addition to this work the Party members formed a Financial Committee which was approved by the County government. This Committee audited the accounts of the old Self-government Association, and found many errors. Therefore, they asked the police to arrest the deputy of the village head who had been in charge of the financial affairs, and finally he was fined $120. The old secretary was dismissed also, and the Committee took over the financial affairs of the town. Although all this was done in the name of the citizens yet the Committee was composed mostly of Party members, acting on behalf of the Party.

At the beginning of 1929 the formal organisation of the Party was completed but because of its small numbers it could not really be ranked as a District Party organisation although it is situated in the centre of the district[1], so it was given the rank of a branch Association. Three executive officers were elected by the members, one of whom became principal of

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(1) According to Party Regulations a minimum of fifteen members is required to form a District Party Organisation.

the local school so that the Party gained control of 665 of the school affairs as well as the finance. Unfortunately this additional power was the collapse of the whole organisation. As we have described in Chapter IX a training school for rural teachers was started by the Party, and after three months' training the majority of the graduates were found positions in the various rural schools, but there were not enough positions for all. Those who were not successful in finding a post became discontented and accused the Party members of graft in the placing of the graduates. There was a demonstration and the Party members were driven from the town. At present the Party office is closed, the members have returned to their occupations, and the Party machinery is suspended after only five months of very active work.

4. Public Finance.

As the work of local gvernment has been divided 652 amongst the district government, the village government and the Chamber of Commerce, we find that local finance have been very much mixed up too. There are three different sources of revenue ; taxation levied by the District goverment on grain sales, sale of fruit and vegetables and of live stock, and the toll on pack carts and animals ; from taxation and contributions from the stores ; and the contribution from the Chamber of Commerce, and the Association for the Protection of Green Crops. Fortunately the investigator was able to get posspssion of the book which had been kept by the old Self-government Association, and a detailed analysis was made for the preceding year :

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TABLE XLV. REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE SELF-GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION, SCHOOL, LOCAL GUARDS, AND POLICE STATION

chinese month	revenue (in dollars)	average as 100	expenditure (in dollars)	average as 100
10th, 1927	626.74	131	713.88	148
11th, 1927	571.57	120	592.20	123
12th, 1927	808.97	169	398.32	83
1st, 1928	315.06	66	287.40	60
2nd, 1928	165.56	55	375.96	73
2nd, 1928	409.15	86	318.30	66
3rd, 1928	314.09	66	760.70	159
4th, 1928	369.60	77	364.71	76
5th, 1928	281.50	59	276.24	57
6th, 1928	451.21	94	532.49	111
7th, 1928	1,016.90	2,123	654.76	136
8th, 1928	403.72	84	598.52	124
9th, 1928	487.60	102	419.01	87
Total	6,621.67		6,272.49	
Average	078.59	100	482.50	100

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The records were made according to the Chinese 652 calender which has twelve months in ordinary years but thirteen months in the leap year, and as this happened to be a leap year we have thirteen months in the year including two second months, so that the total amount of this year may be a little bit larger than other years. If we substract one month from the total we have twelve months' figures for revenue and expenditure of $5, 743.08 and $5, 789.99 respectively, showing that the total expenditure is slightly larger than the total revenue and must have been made up by loans or other measures. The monthly expenditure is more stable than the monthly revenue because expenses are more or less fixed while the revenue depends upon the sale of farm products which are highly seasonal. The lowest index of revenue goes down as low as 35 in the second months of 1928; on the other hand the highest rises to 2,123 in the seventh month of 1928, whereas the range for expenditure is only from 57 to 159.

We tried to analyse the various items of re- 651 venue to see how the contributions were shared among the various sources. The daily tax is a charge made on every store in the town every day; welfare tax is a charge made on the open shops during the market days; the grain tax is charged on the sale of grain in the market, and makes by far the largest contribution. Road tax is charged on carts and animals carrying commodities; fifth and eleventh item are the contributions from the Association for the Protection of Geen Crops in the various villages in the eastern district; school fees

TABLE XLVI. SOURCES OF REVENUE

SOURCES	AMOUNT (IN DOLLARS)
1. Daily tax	294.78
2. Welfare tax	81.53
3. Grain tax	2,190.14
4. Road tax	439.89
5. Help from other villages	918.90
6. School fees	41.10
7. Watchman's fee	57.47
8. Local guards' fee	822.73
9. Rent of Public Asset	12.00
10. Charge for feeds of military horses	677.86
11. Ching-ho village	61.73
12. Charge for street lamps and street cleaning	148.10
13. Special police fund from the stores	148.10
14. Fruit and Vegetable tax	40.00
13. Livestock tax	40.00
16. Miscellaneous	332.91
Total	6,221.67

are fees collected from the pupils; watchman's fee and local guards' fee and the tenth twelveth and thirteenth items are all contributions from the various stores. The last item includes such small and miscellaneous items from sources which cannot be properly classified. 651

The expenditure is classified in a more simple way as follows:

TABLE XLVII. ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE

NATURE	AMOUNT IN DOLLARS
Self-goverment	1,668.00
Police station	3,028.00
School	412.00
Local guards	719.00
Resident soldiers	409.00
Miscellaneous	38.00
Totat	6,272.00

Although there is only one treasurer who takes charge of all the money and accounts for its expenditure yet there are several organisations inside and outside the town for the collection of revenue. The Bureau of Weights which has a standard weighting system controls the sale of fruits and vegetables, and charges 3% to the seller and 2% to the buyer, a total of 5%. This Bureau has been in existence for more than ten years and has never changed hands. The person in charge contributes $40 a year to the County government, and $120 a year to the District government, but so far only some $40 have been handed over to the District government.

There is another Bureau which collects the tax on all livestock killed for sale. The rate is $1 for each cow killed 60¢ for a pig and 40¢ for a sheep, but in practice the chief charges only half the regular rate. He is able to do this because the position was put up for auction and he has made an agreement with the county government to contribute $200 a year as tax whether the actual amount is up to that figure or not. If he collects more than the $200, be gets the benefit but if be cannot collect enough to pay the county government and the expenses of collection he usually invites the village heads and the managers of the various meat shops to contribute a special sum to tide over the situation, which is called "the lifting of the stone which is too heavy for the chief of the bureau to carry". Besides these $200 the Chief of the Bureau has to pay 20% deposit of the bidding value and 20% of the registration fee. There is also a further 20% fee for the workers in the County Bureau which does not come under the government. The method of collecting the tax is interesting. As there are only a few meat shops in the whole district. It would be very expensive to employ a large enough staff of inspectors so the Chief asks the various village heads to issue the licence to the meat shops on his behalf. Then the chief goes to the meat shops himself and negotiates with them for certain amount of tax from each shop. The Bureau for the collection of the tax on the sale of livestock is conducted on much the same lives, in fact it is the same person who offered the highest bid and has the job. The rate of the tax is

3% from the buyer and additional 3% for the maintaince of the local school. The Bureau expert helps in accertaining the real value of the animal and in the negotiation of the price, and the Bureau also issues a certicate guaranteeing that the animal rightly belongs to the seller.

The road tax, which is charged on carts or animals carrying any kind of commodity is collected by two bureaux outside the town. The charge made is six coppers for each cart, four coppers for a camel, and two for a donkey. No receipt is issued to the passenger, so the collector can report any kind of revenue he likes.

The most important collecting organisation is the Bureau of Measurement which has control of all sales of grain in the town. The position is offered to the public by auction every three years, the highest bid offered by the present admintstration being $1,300 per year. The rate is one percent of the market price, half of which goes to the district selfgovernment, and the other half to the bidder. However, as we saw from the books the money is directly handed over to the district government by the various grain stores. The total amount for the preceding year as analysed above is more than $2,000 a year. All other taxes such as daily tax, welfare tax, watchman's fees, charges for street lamps and street cleaning, are collected by the policemen from the stores. Special funds are collected by special personnel by order of the district government. All money after collection is placed in the hands of the district self-government association for necessary expenses.

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Since the coming of the Party to the town, the members have organised a financial commitee in the name of the citizens to take over the financial business of the whole town and district. The day after its establishment the members went over to the self-government offices and took possession of the books. They spent two or three days in auditing the books and found out many faults, so they arrested the deputy of the village head who did most of the work for both the village government and the district government, and he was fined $120 and released.

This committee has five executive members and 17 ordinary members. One good action they have undertaken is the publication of all accounts every month, and the following is their financial report for the first month of their administration. Although this only covers the first eighteen days yet the expenses are practically complete for the whole month, and we can thus take this account to represent the current month.

TABLE XLVIII. FINANCIAL REPORT OF NOVEMBER, 1928

INCOME	Amount	EXPENDITURE	Amount
From self-government	$117.04	Police station	$284.60
Special contribution	15.20	Financial committee	13.64
Students' fees.	7.50	School	15.33
Grain tax	270.03	Party organisation	120.00
Fine from Li	120.00	Street cleoning	10.00
How Chuan grain tax	12.50	Miscellaneous	51.20
Road tax	121.00		
Welare tax	3.50		
Daily tax	15.00		
Watchman's fee	5.50		
Miscellaneous	18.50	Balance	196.20
Total	691.27	Total	691.27

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The proposed budget of the financial Committee is as follows :

TABLE XLVIIIA PROPOSED BUDGET FOR 1929

INCOME	Amount	EXPENDITURE	Amount
Help from villages	$868.90	Police Station	
Fruit & Vegetable tax	120.00	Salaries	$ 1,620
Livestock tax	40.00	Equipment	193
Grain tax	1,092.50	Miscellaneous	120
Daily tax	272.90	Financial Committee	
Rent	12.05	Salary	240
Miscellaneous	55.40	Wages	252
		Miscellaneous	120
Total	2,461.70	Total	$2,545

In the above budget the items, school and self-government have been dropped. The school now has an independent budget with the road tax as its regular support. The self-government is combined with the police station temporarily because the police head is made also the head of the district. This proposed budget is as a whole much smaller than the expenses and inccome of the precoding year.

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATION

1. General.

871 797 Some years ago Ching Ho was well provided with educational facilities. There was a public school of six grades accommodating about one hundred pupils; the Presbyterian Church maintained a boys' school and a girls' school of the lower primary type; the Mohammedans had their own school for teaching their language and bible, and there was also a private school run by Dr. Wang of the town. At the time of the survey the missionary schools, had been closed for about two years, and Dr. Wangs school closed just about the time the survey started, because Dr. Wang himself was too busy with his professional work and Party business to carry on the school work also. Therefore, at the time when the enquiry was made there was only one regular school open, and that was supported by public funds and controlled by the political authorities, The Mohammedan school was still open, but its influence does not extend beyond the mohammedan community itself.

871 658 However, during the course of our survey a very interesting experiment was made in Ching Ho by the Party authorities. After taking control of the political machinery and finances in Ching Ho, they made several enquiries and found that in most of the

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village schools the old type of teacher was still 871
employed to teach the Confucian texts, and so they 658
decided to open a school to train teachers to serve in the villages under the political headquarters of the Fifth district of Wan Ping Hsien. Although the experiment was not particularly successful, yet it is very important as an experiment, because previously teachers for rural schools have always been trained in the cities, and no town of the size of Ching Ho has done anything towards training teachers for its own schools.

The adequacy of a public school as an institution 212
for improvement can only be measured by the 871
percentage of literates in the in the town, and by the percentage of children of school age who are registered as pupils. The store population will naturally have a high percentage of literates because every clerk should be able to write a bill or make out an account, and all apprentices learn to do this. The following table gives a summary of literacy of the store population over ten years of age. We heve taken ten as the dividing line because children below that age still have a good chance of learning to read and write :—

TABLE XLIX. LITERACY OF STORE POPULATION

Literacy.	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Can not read	180	31.0	138	25.3	42	100.0
Can read	154	26.3	154	28.5	0	0
Can write	250	42.7	250	46.2	0	0
Total	584	100.0	542	100.0	42	100.0
Unknown	2		2			

Of the 42 women in the stores none can read, and there are also 138 men who cannot read. These persons are mostly cooks and manual workers who have very little to do with the running of the business. In this survey our test of literacy has been ability to read the popular type of newspaper, and the person who can only read a few characters has not been counted as literate.

Among the family population the percentage of literates is very low there being only 429 persons of the 1,428 family persons over ten years of age who are able to read a newspaper. -The general impression has been that only about 5% of the population of China can read and write, but from our investigation in Ching Ho we find that 30.3% of all the population able to read, and the proportion of males is much higher, 55.5%. But as women are concerned the statement holds good as only 4% of the women in Ching Ho can be called literate.

In this consideration of the question of literacy we have not included officials and teachers in our figures, because it is taken for granted that they are able to read ad write.

TABLE I.. LITERACY OF FAMILY CIVILIAN POPULATION

LITERACR	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Can not read	999	69.7	324	44.7	675	96.0
Can read	429	30.3	401	55.3	28	4.0
Total	1,428	100.0	725	100.0	703	100.0

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When we consider the percentage of children attending school we find the mumber is very low, 45. 4%, which is largely due to the small number of girl pupils—21. 2% as against 62. 3% for boys. 871

TABLE LI. PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN IN SCHOOLS

SCHOOLING	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
In schools	88	45.4	71	62.3	17	21.2
Not in schools	106	54.6	43	37.7	63	78.8
Total	194	100.0	114	100.0	80	100.0

2. The Public school.

The history of the public school has been continually influenned by the social changes in the town. During the half year of this survey the school administraton and teaching staff was changed four times. Founded in 1904 as a district public school and supported by all the thirty four villages of the fifth political district of Wan Ping Hsien, the school has now become purely a town school financed entirely by the taxes collected from the sale of grain. At the beginning of the academic year of 1928-9 there were two teachers for the five grades covering about 70 students. The principal of the school was a political and commercial leader in the town, and as he was in some kind of personal 872 difficulty he did not put in a single appearance at the school. The administrative work was in the hands of two trustees, one acting as principal, and the other being the head of the political organisation. During the absence of the principal and trustee the other member managed the whole business, opening the school and engaging teachers. For some reason one of the teachers was dismissed by the administrative authorities, and another engaged in his place. The Party authorities who came into power at this time thought the change unwise, and changed both the old authorities and the new teacher, so that this teacher only served for a very short time. During several weeks only one teacher was in charge of all the pupils, and he was much criticised by the pupils and the community for being lazy and ignorant. Attendance dropped very quickly, so the Party Authorities discharged this teacher, and as it was impossible for them to get a satisfactory person in the middle of the term, the Party authorities took over the duty until the end of the Autumn term. At the beginning of the Spring term some real improvements were introduced. A new principal who had graduated from the Municipal School, and also studied for some time in the Sino-French University at Peking, was appointed, and he engaged three teachers from the same Normal School. The salaries for teachers has been raised from $12 and $15 to $15 and $30, and the budget has benn increased from $400 a year to more than $1000. In the old school there were five grades, first, second, fourth, fifth, and sixth, but these classes were re-organised into five consecutive grades from first to fifth, and the pupils were re-classified according to their ability. Many new pupils were admitted at the beginning of the Snring term bringing the members up to 126. The distribution of students in the grades is as follows: 872

TABLE LII. AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS

871

GRADE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
First	50	35	15
Second	29	25	4
Third	18	16	2
Fourth	14	14	0
Fifth	15	15	0
Total	126	105	21

The first grade class is large, and the numbers cannot be increased without sub-division. The second grade has just sufficient pupils, and the higher grades still have some vacancies. This means that the school is being used to its fullest capacity, and further increase in the number of pupils would mean the sub-division of classes and the appointment of more teachers.

It is interesting to notice that the majority of the girls are in the First grade, and not a single girl is registered in the Fourth and Fifth grades. This may either be due to the lower ability of the girls, or

87/ from the fact that their parents do not like their older daughters mixing with the boys in the higher grades.

TABLE LIII. AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS

AGE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
5	1	1	0
6	6	5	1
7	8	4	4
8	12	8	4
9	11	10	1
10	25	22	3
11	26	21	5
12	15	12	3
13	7	7	0
14	10	10	0
15	5	5	0
Total	126	105	21

Most of the pupils are still within the "school age"—as it is defined by the educational authorities in China, that is six to eleven years inclusive. Only one boy is below, and twenty boys above the age, while all the girls come within the specified period.

[463] Another interesting point on which we made en-

quiries was the occupation of the parents, as this has a bearing on he objectives and curriculum of the school. As the school is situated in a town we should expect that a good number of the parents would be occupied in trade. This is the case in Ching Ho where we found that the parents of 41% of the pupils were engaged in some sort of trade. The distribution is as follows : 871 463

TABLE LIV. OCCUPATION OF PUPILS' PARENTS

OCCUPATIONS	NO. OF PUPILS	%
Trade	51	40.5
Industry	30	23.8
Farming	21	16.7
Unemployed	8	6.3
Pedlers	6	4.8
Officials	4	3.2
Military service	4	3.2
Teaching	1	0.8
Doctor	1	0.8
Total	126	100.0

From a study of this table we can safely say that Ching Ho's educational need is more commercial than agricultural, although of course, an educational centre should cater for the needs of all its neighbours. 871

871 At present there are only seven pupils who come from outside the town, but if the school settles down we naturally expect that more farmers' sons and daughters will want to come into the town for their education.

Under the new administration the curricula has also been revised. Formerly, the three R's with a few hours general knowledge and music comprised the whole schedule, but now almost every subject taught in the best public schools is given, including the national spoken language, handicrafts, nature study, history, geography, and personal hygiene; Party principles and English have also been introduced.

TABLE LV. CURRICULA OF DIFFERENT GRADES (WITH HOURS PER WEEK)

	GRADE 1	GRADE 2	GRADE 3	GRADE 4	GRADE 5
Arithmetic	6	6	6	6	4
Common knowledge	6	6	3	3	0
Mandarin	7	7	6	6	6
Exercises	3	3	3	3	3
Party Principles	2	2	2	2	2
Music	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1	1	2
Handicraft	1	1	1	1	2
Nrture study	0	0	2	2	2
Social study	0	0	3	3	0
Abacus	0	0	0	0	2
Geography	0	0	0	0	2
History	0	0	0	0	2
Composition	0	0	0	0	2
English	0	0	0	0	2
Personal hygiene	0	0	0	0	1
Total	28	28	29	29	34

EDUCATION

Under the new administration the total budget for the year is $1,152. Formerly the funds for the school were contributed by the thirty four villages of the district, but later a 1% rax was charged on grain sales for the purpose of supporting the police and the schools, the total amount from this scurce amounting to about $600 a year. Since the advent of the Financial Committee the taxes have been pooled for the support of all local needs, excepting the road tax amounting to about $400 which was specially earmarked for schoor funds, but this single source is still too low to cover the current budget. Plans are being made to increase the road tax and to decrease the expenses of collection, and the necessay balance will be provided by the larger stores in Ching Ho for the time being. 871

The expenditure of the budget is very simple. The principal who is a native of an adjacent village and a political leader does not receive any monetary payment except his boarding expenses of $7. The whole budget is as follows:—

TABLE LVI. SCHOOL BUDGET, 1929

EXPENDITURE	MONTH	YEAR
Salary for teachers	60	720
Wages for servant	7	84
Boarding of principal	7	84
Subsidy for cook	2	24
Equipment and repairs	10	100
Miscellaneous expenses	10	100
Total	96	1,152

Salaries for teachers are graded; the two who teach in the lowest grades receive $15 a month while the teacher in the higher grades receive $30 a month. The last two items on the budget are only calculated 875

875 for ten months, as they believe these expenses can be cut during vacations.

3. The Training School.

Although the training school may not be of a very high standard, yet it is a step forward in the history of education in Ching Ho. The Party authorities decided to hold this school for three months to try to remedy the lack of trained teachers for the villages. The school was formally opened in December 1928 with a total enrollment of twenty-one students, under the guidance of the six Party leaders, and one teacher specially engaged for the work.

The curriculum, as drawn up, included all the important courses usually taught in training schools, and on Sundays there were usually discussion groups and lectures to widen the interests of the students. we reproduce a complete copy of the curriculum:—

TABLE LVII. CURRICULUM OF THE TRAINING SCHOOL

WEEK DAYS	PERIODS				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Monday	Teaching methods	Child psy.	Party ed.	Principles of ed.	School management
Tuesday	Arithmetic	Ethics	Music	Chinese	3 People's principles
Wednesday	Child psy.	Prin. of ed.	Management	Teaching methods	Hand Work
Thursday	Party ed.	Chinese	Ethics	Arithmetic	Drawing
Friday	Arithmetic	3 People's principle	Prin. of ed.	Party ed.	Exercises
Saturday	Teaching methods	children psy.	3 People's principle	Composition	Composition
Sunday	Discussions	Discussions	Lectures	Lectures	Lectures

The materials used in teaching were generally adopted from books published by the Commercial

EDUCATION

Press and other standard book companies, but the weak point was the teaching staff. Of seven teachers scheduled for one or more courses only three had received any kind of Normal school training themselves. The others had only recieved an ordinary elementary school training, so one could hardly expect a very high teaching standard.

Among the 21 students who registered were three women. The ages varied from 16 to 36 years, as shown in the following table :—

TABLE LVIII. AGE DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOL STUDENTS

AGE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALS
16	1	0	1
17	1	1	0
18	1	1	0
19	1	1	0
20	3	3	0
21	4	3	1
22	2	2	0
23	1	1	0
24	1	1	0
25	0	0	0
26	1	1	0
27	1	1	0
28	2	2	0
30	1	0	1
36	1	1	0
Total	21	18	3

With the exception of one woman all tho students were natives of Wan Ping Hsien living either in the

875 town or in the nearby neighbourhoods. The majority of them had some years in a higher primary school, but there were some who had only been to a lower primary school and three who had not attended any modern school.

TABLE LIX. QUALIFICATIONS OF NORMAL SCHOOL STUDENTS

QUALIFICATIONS	NO. OF PERSONS
Higher Primary	13
Lower primary	5
Private education	3
Total	21

The training course was completed in March 1929, and most of the graduates have been appointed to village schools in the district. There has not yet been time enough to see the results of their work, and to criticise the training course as a whole, but we should consider that a three month's training course after private school or lower primary school education is certainly not enough to fit any person for teaching work. There have been several incidents between teachers and students, and the real spirit of the school has been undermined by unfriendly action, and political interference.

4. Social Education.

212
873 Very little attention has been given to the

question of adult education, no lectures have been 212 arranged ; no Mass Education school has been opened; 873 and there is no library. During the month of October a night school for adults was announced to be run by the only teacher, a low grade man, then in charge of the school. According to the andouncements the purpose of the evening school was to help those between the ages of 10 and 40 years who had not had the opportunity of learning to read and write, to learn the Thousand Characters, some arithmetic, and also to receive instruction in the Three Principles. The course was to last three months, and the students were to meet each evening from 6-30 to 8-30, but long before the end of this period the course was dropped, chiefly because the students were too busy to attend, and also owing to the poor type of teacher in whose care the work was put. Since then nothing further has been attempted.

We made further enquiries to see if the negligence 517 to provide cultural facilities by the community was remedied by the people individually. As stated in Chap. V there are thirty four popular periodicals and newspapers supplied in the town and only ten stores have books of any description. Of the 371 families only one family takes a newspaper, and thirty families possess books. In a survey such as this it is difficult to count all the books, but so far as our information goes seventeen reported that they have a few books, between one and ten, eight had more than ten and less than one hundred, and seven reported that they had more than one hundred books.

CHAPTER X.

RELIGION.

1. Religious Distribution.

771 Religion in China is in most cases a family affair forced upon the members by the family head; so that usually the whole family is reported as holding the same faith, and naturally under such circumstances we find very little interest in religion especially among those who call themselves Buddhists. The following table shows the number of people and the religions which they profess:

TABLE LX. RELIGIOUS DISTRIBUTION BY FAMILIES.

RELIGION	NO. OF FAMILIES	°/₀
Buddhists	323	87.1
Mohammedans.	42	11.3
Christians.	3	.8
Confucianists.	1	.3
No religious affiliation.	2	.5
Total	371	100.0

According to these figures the Buddhist faith claims the largest number of adherents, but usually

RELIGION.

those people who have no religious affiliation call themselves Buddhists, even although they know nothing of Buddhist principles, and do not observe the Buddhist ceremonies except in the case of a death. The term Confucianist is also vague, as people will often know a great deal about Confucianist principles and observe many of the ceremonies and yet not report themselves as Confucianists because they do not consider Confucianism as a system of religion. In fact in most cases they are neither Buddhist nor Confucianist, but atheists, believing a little of everything, but not understanding any form seriously enough to be called believers.

If we take the individual as the religious unit we shall have to deduct the young people who have not the freedom to choose or reject their religious affiliation, and we have taken 16 years as the dividing line, although it is of course arbitrary and artificial, but it will serve our present purpose :

TABLE LXI. RELIGIOUS DISTRIBUTION BY INDIVIDUALS.

RELIGION.	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀	No.	°/₀
Buddhists	1774	89.1	1130	90.7	644	86.3
Mohammedans	200	10.1	108	8.7	92	12.7
Christians	11	.6	4	.3	7	.9
Confucianists.	3	.2	2	.2	1	.1
No religious offiliation.	2	.1	1	.1	1	.1
Total	1990	100.0	1245	100.0	745	100.0

771 Here the so-called Buddhists still hold the first place, with a percentage almost the same as that in calculating the distribution by families. The table does not tell us much, except as it points to the significance of the Mohammedans who form 10% of the whole population over 16 years, and therefore, play a big part in the life of the town.

2. The Mohammedan Temple.

779 The religious life of the Mohammedans is centred in the Mohammedan Temple situated on the north side of the river. Originally it was on the south side, but in 1899 the Mohammedans contributed towards the new building on the present site.

779
793 Two officers are in charge of the Temple, the ahung or pastor, and the butcher. The ahung is selected every third year, and is eligible for reelection. He is the leader of all religious ceremonies both inside the Temple or in the families, and teaches the children the Turkish language and the Mohammedan bible.
779
794 The butcher holds a permanent position, and is a person proficient in the killing of of livestock, who takes charge of all the killing for the members. In addition to these two regular officers there are three elders and a number of assistants who are all voluntary workers. The elders deal with finance matters and other important business, and the assistants help the elders in the administrative side of the work. The voluntary workers are elected from among the members, and their term of office is indefinite, depending upon the ability and aptitude of the individual. The elders are responsible for

selecting a suitable person from some other larger 779
Temple for the position of ahung. 794

On Friday afternoon of every week a religious service is held, at which no woman is permitted to 779
attend. There are no idols in the Temple, no music 796
is used and absolute quietness is required from everyone except during the reading of the Koran. Before the service everyone must bathe, first washing the head and hands, then the body, and lastly the feet. There are certain public festivals to which women are admitted. On the twenty seventh day of the first month of the Chinese calendar every Mohammedan watches for the whole night as the Chinese do on New Year's Eve. Then there is the general meeting in memory of Mohammed at which everyone is present, and another meeting of the women and children who study the in the Temple in memory of the daughter of Mohammed. The Festivals are grand occasions for the members and great preparations are made and they are largely attended. The funeral servies are in charge of the ahung with the help of the elders.

The Temple is not only the centre for religious 779
ceremonies, but also to a large extent a centre of the 794
social life of the Mohammedan community. The elders not only help the ahung in the conducting of the services, but also look after the material welfare of the members, and there is very little poverty. The moral standard of the Mohammedans is very high and strictly adhered to by the members. It is the social unity of a community which makes the common life of the members possible, but the social unity of the

779 794 Mohammedans is not of the best kind which is based on willingness and consciousness. It is a unity which is forced upon the younger generation by the older, and is reponsible for the lack of progress and adjustment of the Mohammedans to the changes of social life.

The members contribute liberally towards the upkeep of the Temple and its services. Outside of the small income of about $110 derived from house rent and land all the expenses are defrayed by the voluntary contributions of the members. Some contribute money, others food, fuel, or oil, and some give their labour. And if there is at any time a call for money or material the members will contribute according to the need.

3. The Christian Church

797 The finest building in the town is the Presbyterian Church situated in the centre of the main street. The Presbyterians have been active in Ching Ho for some years, and in 1926 the new building was erected with the interest and the help of the local leaders. Unfortunately the church has not been very successful and although about ten families and about thirty students from the military academy attended the Sunday services and Bible classes in the past, only three families now profess Christianity.

The Church has made a larger contribution in the field of education. As it is rather for the younger children to walk to the school at the north end of the town, the Church opened two primary schools, one for boys and one for girls, and an attendance of

100 was steadily maintained. 797

About 1925 a new pastor replaced the old one who had been so succesful in gaining the confidence of the townspeople. The new man was not so successful and at same time Presbyterian Churches adopted a policy of self-help for their rural churches. The people as a whole are very poor, and were not sufficiently interested to give the necessary help, so the church gradually closed down its services and school.

4. Chinese Temples

There are altogether ten temples in the town, five 795 in the northern section, and five in the southern. All of the them are inactive, and there is only one monk who lives in a small room, and watches one of the temples. The large number of temples, and their rich ornament, now decaying, give us an idea of their power and prestige in the past history of China.

At present the two largest temples are being 346 utilised by the school and the self-government associa- 178 tion. In most cases in China it will be found that the temples are the only public buildings which are available to serve the needs of the institutions necessary for the life of the town, and everywhere one finds old temples which in the past had tremendous power in the lives of the people, being used to house schools and public offices. Then we see the decay of 779 the temples and the lack of interest on the part of the 178 people it seems as if Buddhism is tottering, and that left to itself it will gradually die as a power in the peoples' lives, but the drastic measures taken by the

779 government and the Party organisations to destroy
178 idols and superstitution, has had its reaction, and in
many places more interest is again being taken in the
Buddhist teachings by uneducated people.

APPENDIX

SURVEY SCHEDULE

FAMILY SCHEDULE (1)

No. Date 19..............

Head		Manager
Single Household		Multiple Household
Major Household		Minor Household
Address: Street		No.
Years of Residence		
Housing	Owned	Rented
	Value	Rent
	No. Large Rooms	No. Small Rooms
	Material	Old or New
Property	Houses	Value
	Land	Value
	Stores	Value
	Etc	
Income	House Rent Agr. Roducts Store Profit	Land Rent Handicrafts
Expenditure	Food	Clothing
	Housing	Misc.
	Land Tax	House tax

Equipment	Books	Papers
	Musicall Instruments	
	Lighting Instruments	Oil
	Heating Instruments	Fuel
	Vehicles	Horses
Land	Acres Owned	Acres Rented
	Rent in Kind	Rent in Cash

Crops	Kind			
	Acres			
	Average Yield			
	Yield Last Year			

Animals	Cattle	No.	Value	
	Sheep	No.	Value	
	Pigs	No.	Value	
	Chicken	No.	Value	
Handicrafts				

Marriages

Deathes

Remarks

Answerer Surveyor

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CHING HO: A SOCIALOGICAL ANALYSIS

FAMILY SCHEDULE (2)

125 *No.* *Date* *19*..............

Name									
Family Status									
Sex									
Age									
Date of Birth									
Race									
Nativity									
Place of Birth									
Address									
Yrs. of Residence									
Education									
Career									
Religim									
Occupation									
Monthly Salary									
Marital Conditions									
When Engaged?									
When Married?									
Disabled?									
Feeble-minded?									
Diseases?									
Bound-feet									
Pig-tail									
Amusements									
Bad Habits									
Etc.									

Answerer **Surveyor**

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RELIG'ON.

STORE SCHEDWLE (1)

No. Date 19...............

125

Name of Store	
Address: Street	No.
Yrs. of Business	
Guild Affiliations	
Name of Manager	
Name of Prprietors	
Capital	
Store Premises	
Owned	Rented
Value	Rent
Style	Material
Yrs. of Building	
Main Merchandise	
Business Practices	
Retain	Wholesale
Cash	Account

Net gain	% to Capital
Net Loss	% to Capital
Expenses:	
Wages	Rent
Board	Profit Sharing
Daily tax	School Tax
Fee to Guards	St. Cleaning
Watchmen Fee	
Equipments	
Newspapers	
Magazines	
Books	Commercial Books
Lighting Instruments	
Heating Instruments	
Oil	Fuel
Carts	Horses
Bicycles	Telephone
Musical Instramets	

Remarks

Answerer

Surreyor

CHING HO: A SOCIALOGICAL ANALYSIS

STORE SCHEDULE (2)

No. 125 *Date* 19................

Name									
Relation to Manager	Manager								
Sex									
Age									
Date of Birth									
Race									
Nativity									
Place of Birth									
Personal Address									
Family Adbress									
Education									
Career									
Religim									
Position									
Speciality									
Yrs. of Service									
Mouthly Salary									
Boarding in Store									
Marital Condition									
When engaged?									
When Married?									
Diseases									
Amuse-ments									
Bad Habits									
Eta.									

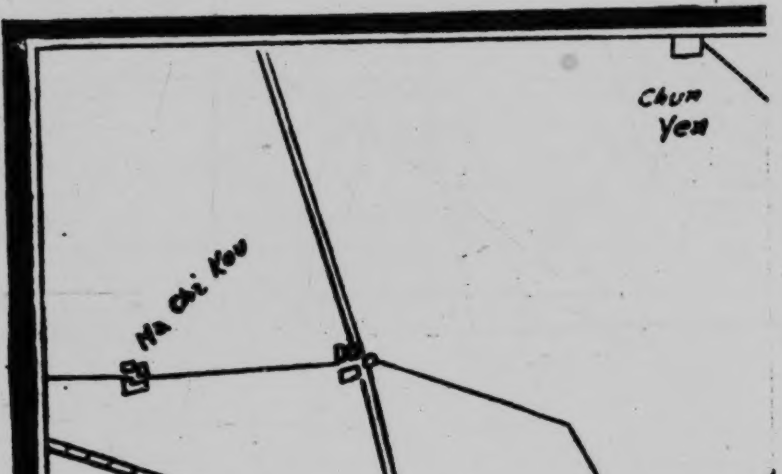
Answerer **Surreyor**

101, 133, 361, 487

A	B	C	D
E	F	G	H
I	J	K	L
M	N	O	P

Chart of position of sections of end map.

101
133
361
487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Ma Chi Kou
Hsi

[End Flap Map A]

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

101
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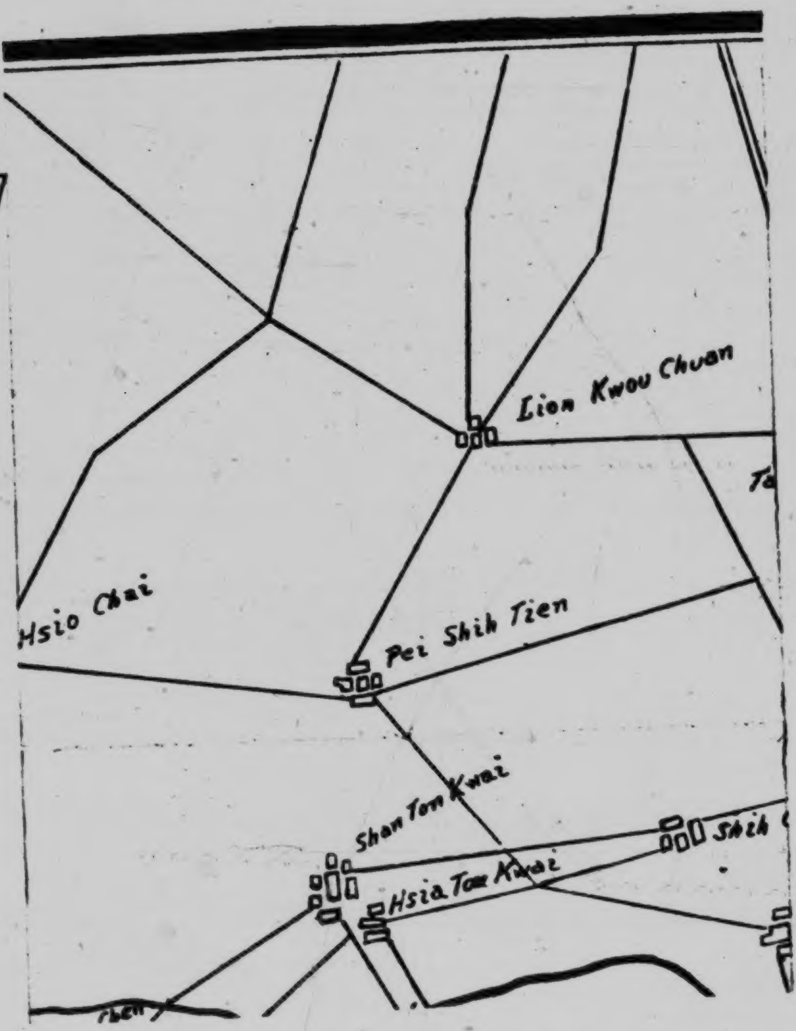
487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Hsio Chai
Pei Shih Tien
Shan Ton Kwai
Shih
Hsia Tou Kwai
Chen

[End flap Map B]

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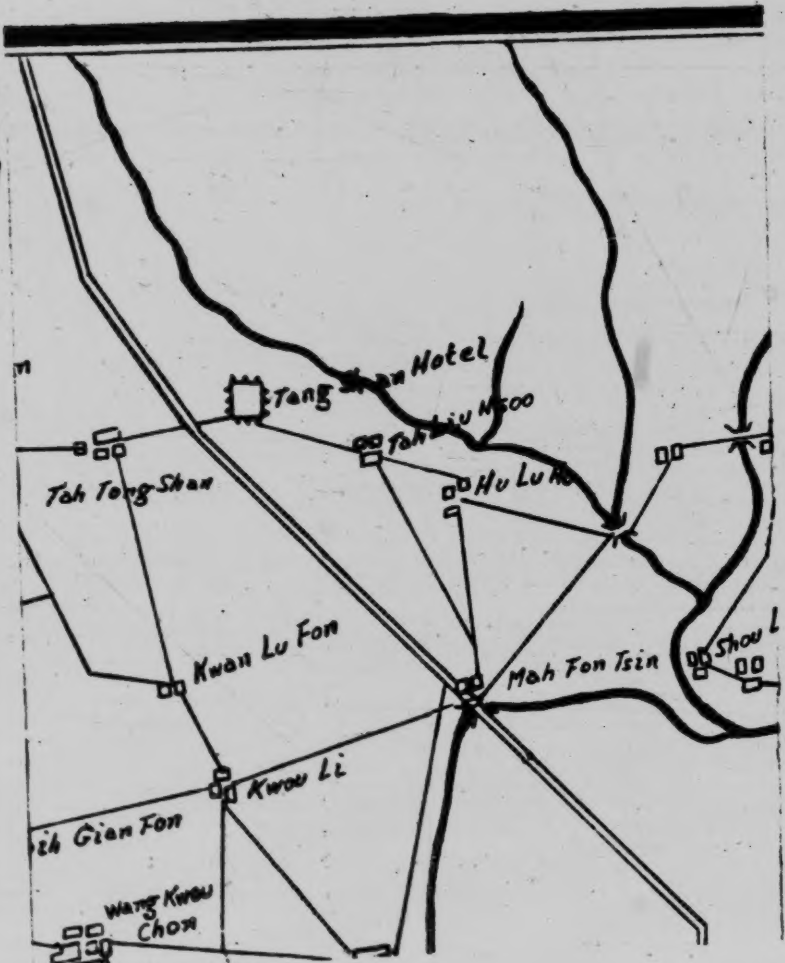
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Hu Lu Ho
Tah Tong Shan
Kwan Lu Fon
Mah Fon Tsin
Shou L
Kwou Li
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Wang Kwou Chon

[End Flap map C]

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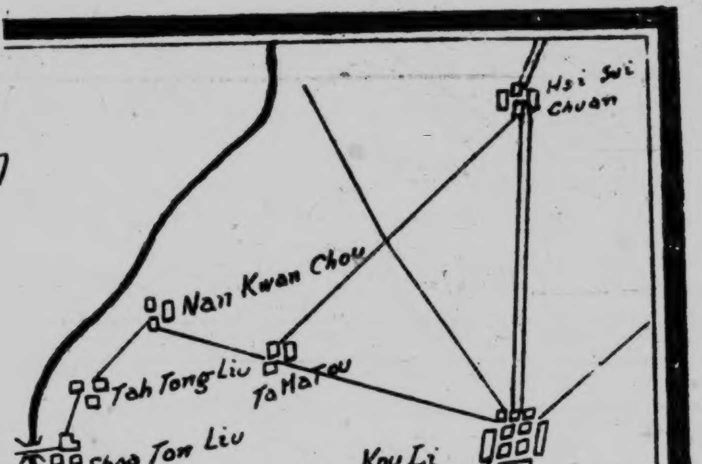
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Nan Kwan Chou
Tah Tong Liu
To Ha Tou
Shoa Ton Liu
Kou Li Ying
ou Ling Kwan
Hsia Ling Kwan
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Tong Fun
Tou Tang
Too Kou
Bai Hsian Chon
Kan Chon

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101
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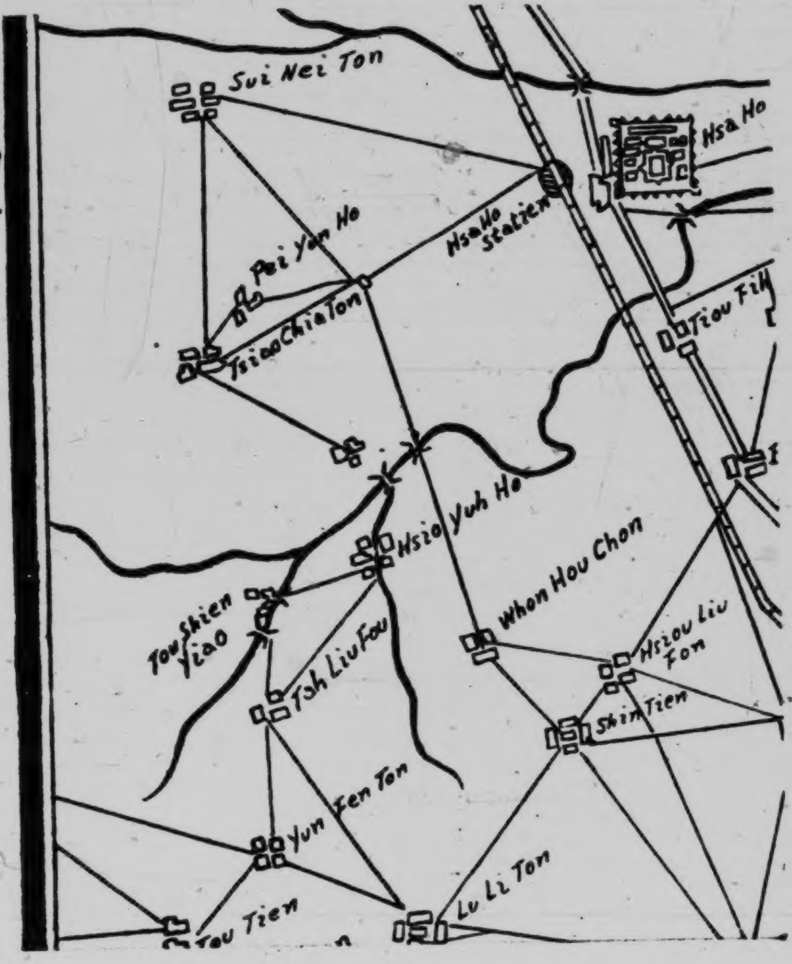
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Hsa Ho
Pei Yan Ho
Hsa Ho Station
Tsiao Chia Ton
Tiou Fih
Hsio Yuh Ho
Whon Hou Chon
Tou Shien Yiao
Tsh Liu Fou
Hsiou Liu Fon
Shin Tien
Yun Fen Ton
Lu Li Ton
Tou Tien

[End Flap Map E]

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

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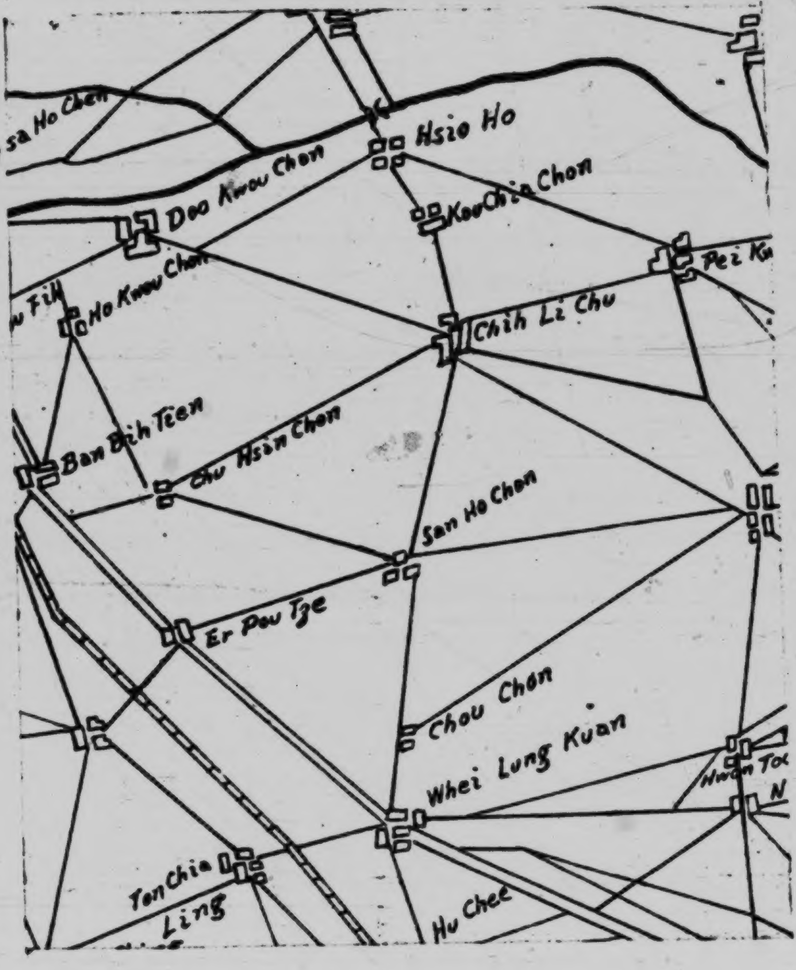
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Hsio Ho
Doo Kwou Chon
Kou Chia Chon
Pei Ku
u Fih
Ho Kwou Chon
Chih Li Chu
Ban Bih Teen
Chu Hsin Chon
San Ho Chon
Er Pou Tze
Chou Chon
Whei Lung Kuan
Hwan Toc
N
Ton Chia
Ling
Hu Chee

[End Flap Map F]

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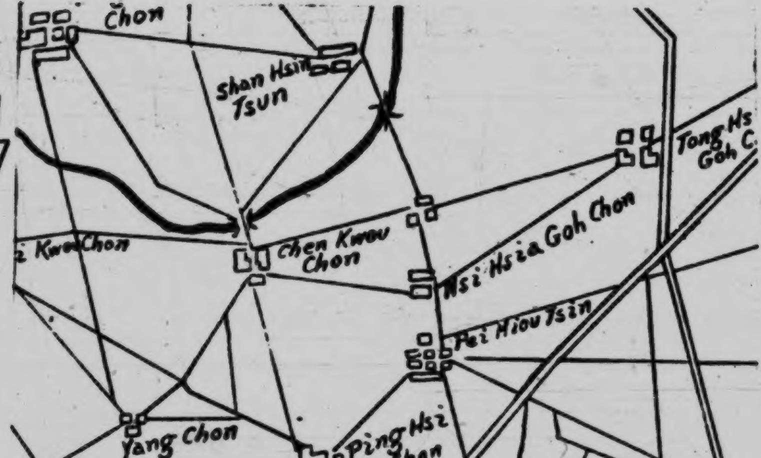
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Chen Kwou Chon
Hsi Hsia Goh Chon
Pei Hiou Tsin
Yang Chon
Ping Hsi Fu Chon
Mah Liou Tian
Hsou Poh Tsun
Wei Chia You
Lon Chou
Pan Gi Tah
Ho Chin Ying
Pei Tien
n Too
Nan Tien
Lan Hwon Chon
Lu Chia Tsun
Ho Chia Tsun
Chee
Hsou Kwou

[End Flap map G]

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929)1930 AF12 North China AF12

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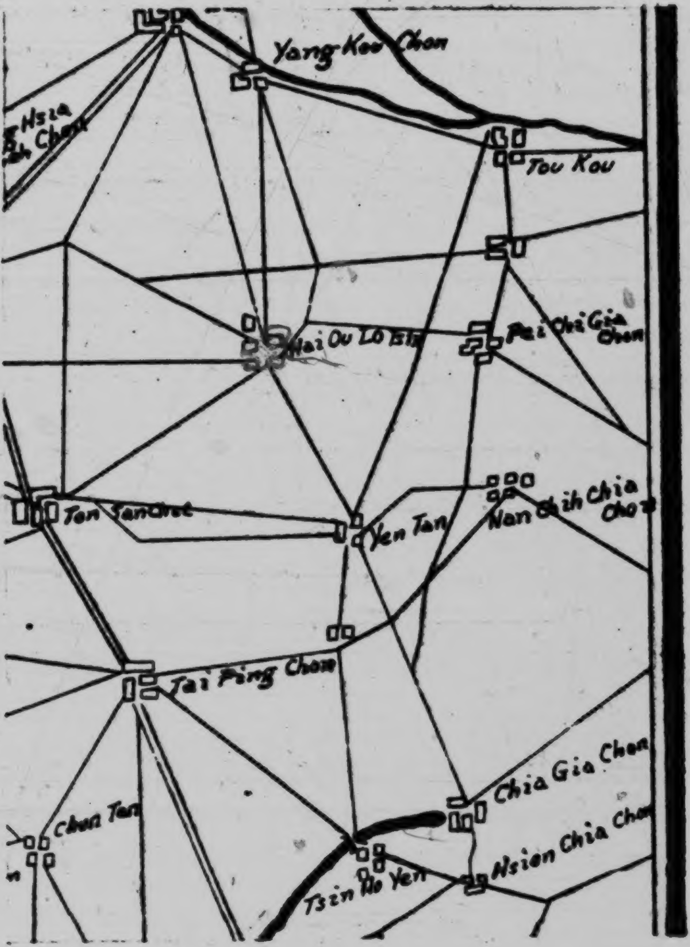
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Hsia
Chow
Tou Kou
Hai Ou Lo Bin
Pei Chi Gia Chon
Ton Sanchet
Yen Tan
Nan Chih Chia Chow
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Chia Gia Chon
Chon Tan
Hsien Chia Chon
Tsin Ho Yen

[End Flap map H]

101
133
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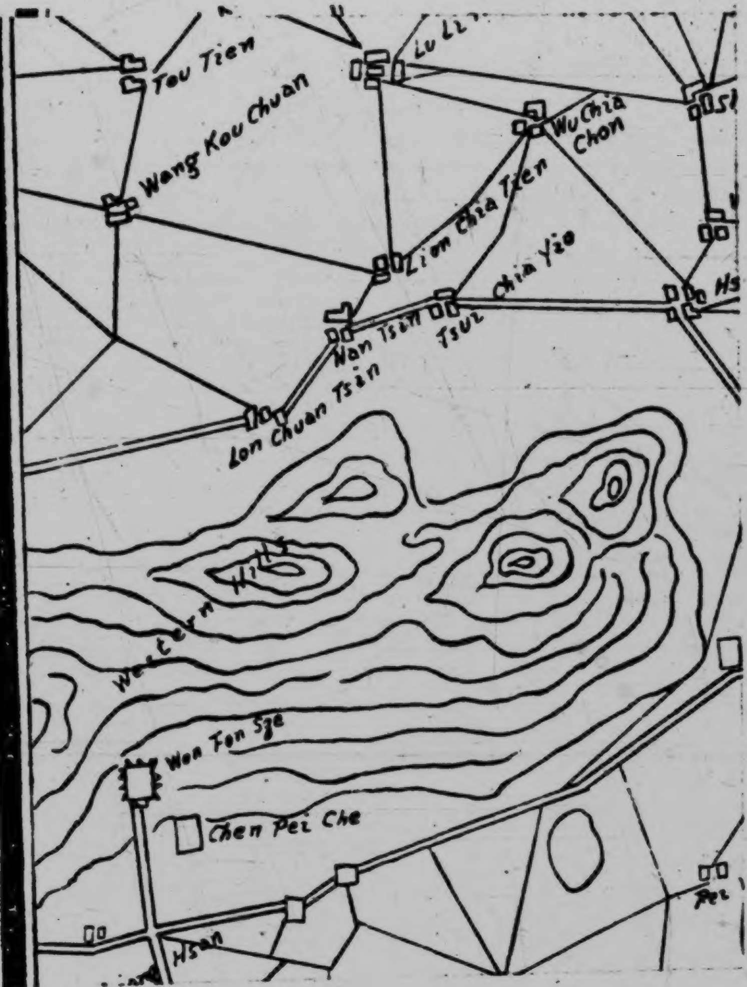
487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Chen Pei Che
Hsan
Pei

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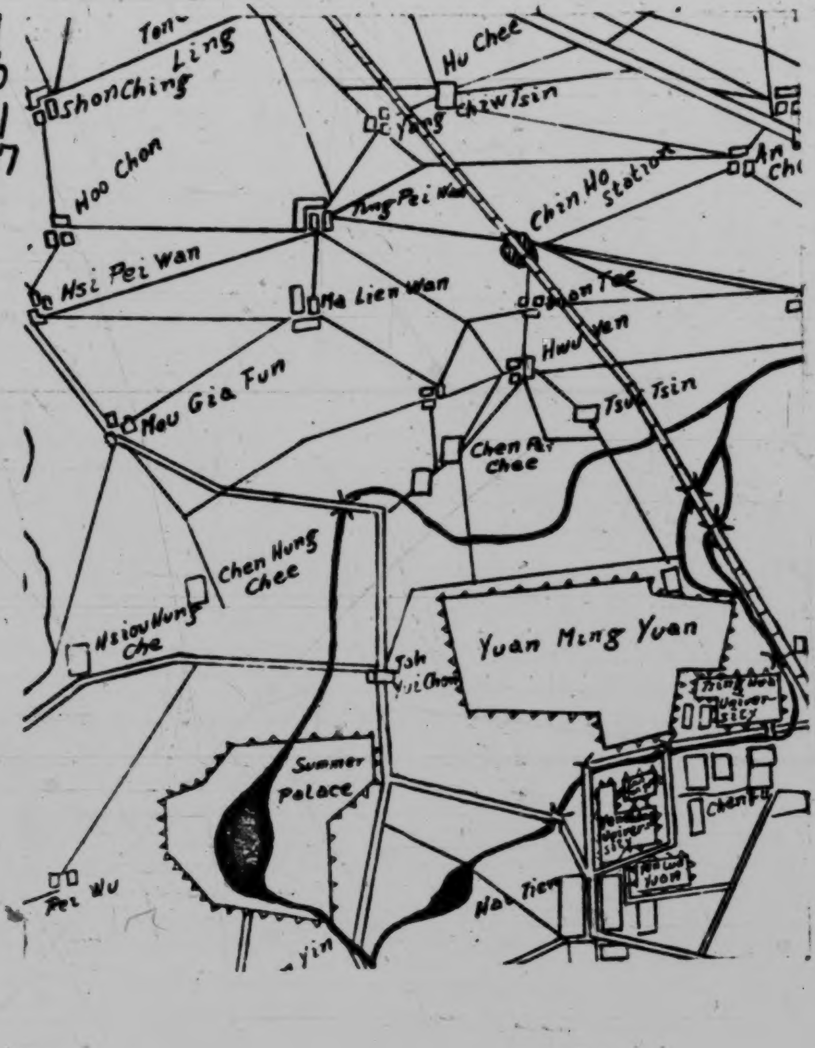
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Chiw Tsin
Yang
Hoo Chon
Ting Pei Wan
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An Ch
Hsi Pei Wan
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Shon Tee
Hwu Yen
Mau Gia Fun
Tsui Tsin
Chen Pai Chee
Chen Hung Chee
Hsiou Hung Che
Yuan Ming Yuan
Tsing Hua University
Toh Yui Chon
Summer Palace
University
Chen Fu
Hai Tien
Pei Wu
yin

[End Flap Map J]

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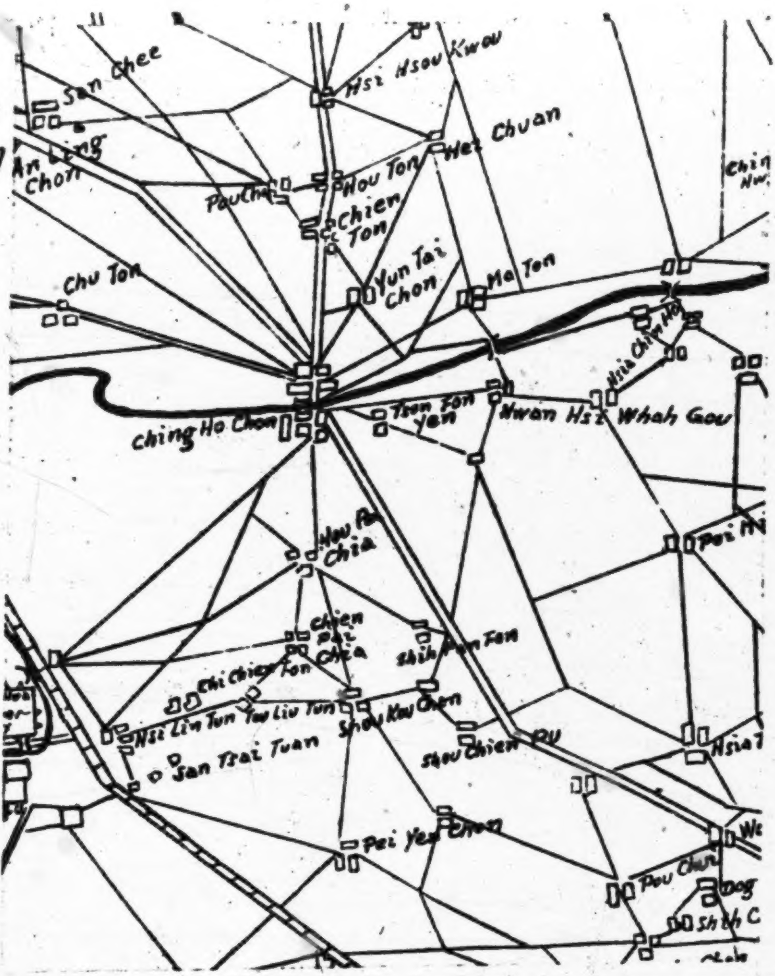
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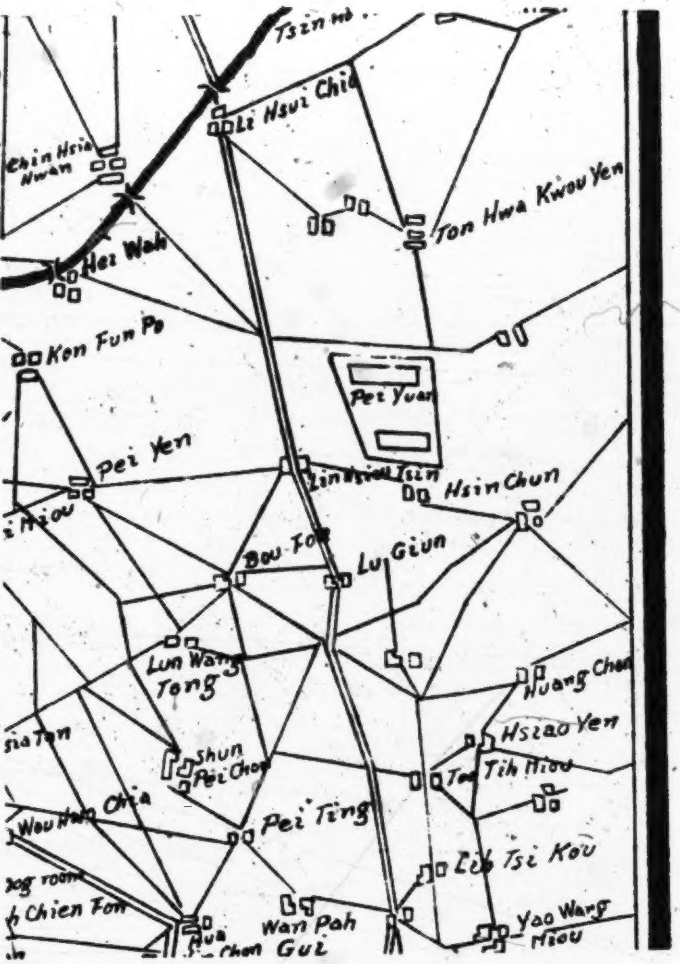
Hsi Hsou Kwou
Wei Chuan
Hou Ton
Pou Chu
Chien Ton
Yun Tai Chon
Ma Ton
Chu Ton
Ching Ho Chon
Tson Fon Yen
Hwan Hsi Whah Gou
Hsia Chin Ho
Hou Pou Chia
Chien Pai Chia
Shih Pan Fon
Chi Chia Fon
Hsi Lin Tun
Tou Liu Tun
Shou Kou Chen
Shou Chien
San Tsai Tuan
Pei Yes Chen
Pou Chun
Shih C
Pei

[End Flap Map K]

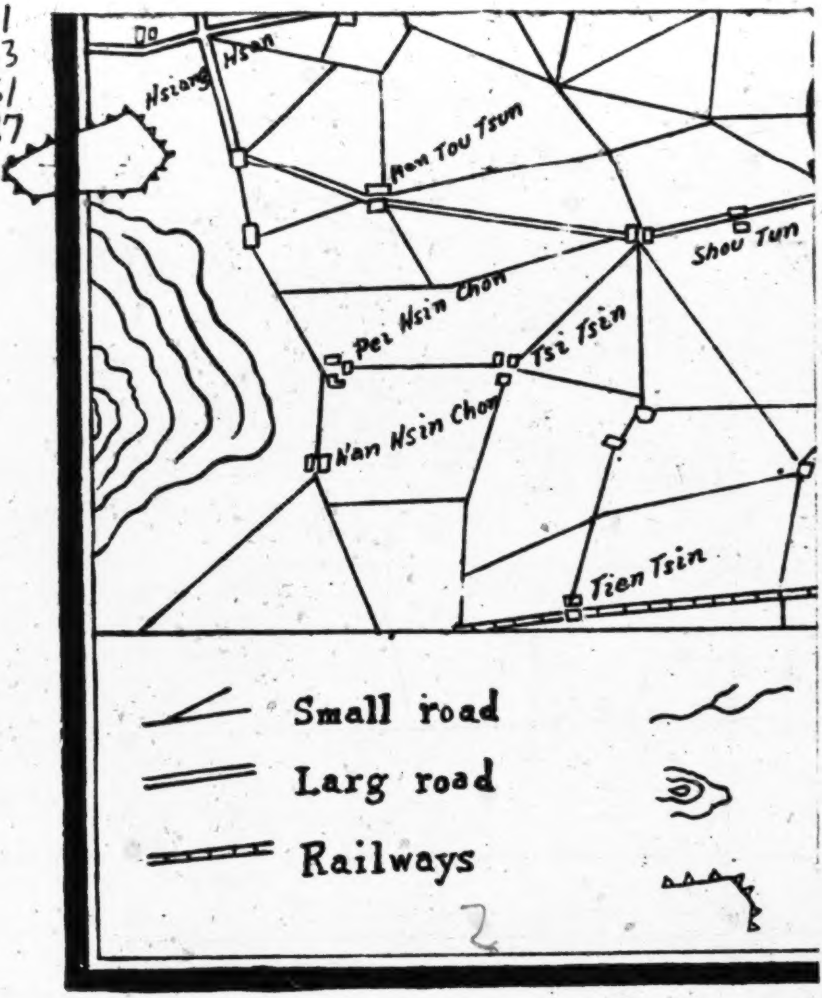
6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

101
133
361
487


Tsin Hi
Li Hsui Chia
Chin Hsia Nwan
Ton Hwa Kwou Yen
Hei Wah
Ken Fun Po
Pei Yuan
Pei Yen
Lin Hsien Tsin
Hsin Chun
Miou
Bou Fou
Lu Giun
Lun Wang Tong
Huang Chen
Hsiao Yen
Tsia Ton
Shun Pei Chou
Tao Tih Miou
Wou Ham Chia
Pei Ting
Lih Tsi Kou
Chien Fon
Wan Pah
Yao Wang Miou
Hua Chen
Gui

[End Flap map L]

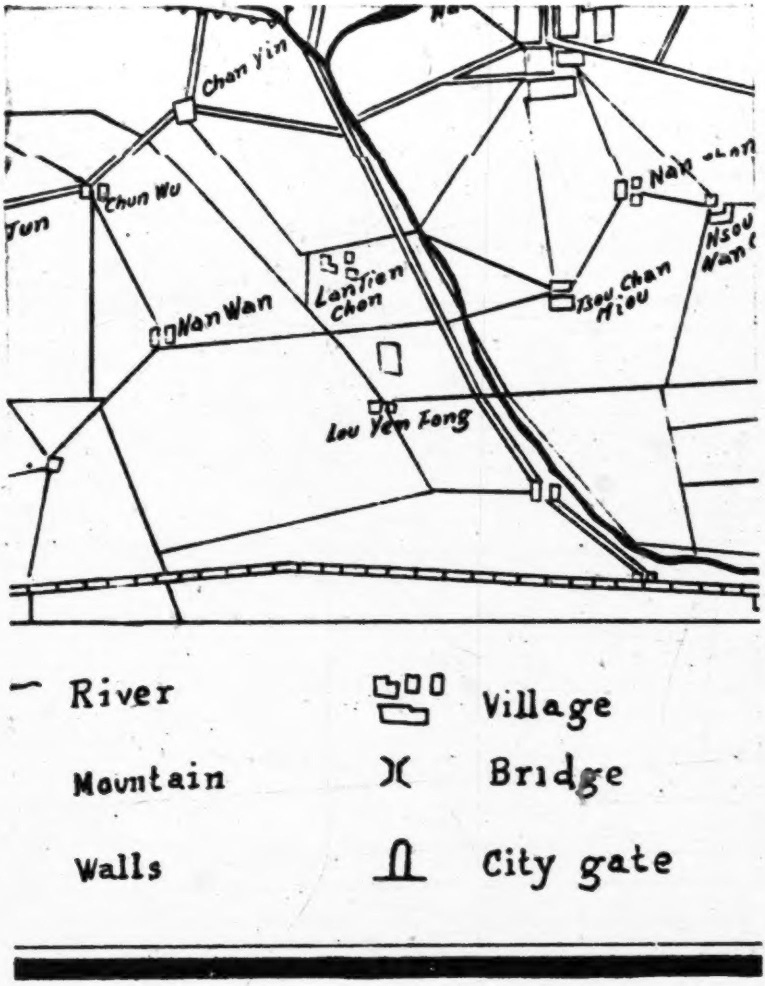
101
133
361
487


Hsiang Hsan
Nan Tou Tsun
Shou Tun
Pei Hsin Chon
Tsi Tsin
Nan Hsin Chon
Tien Tsin
Small road
Larg road
Railways

2

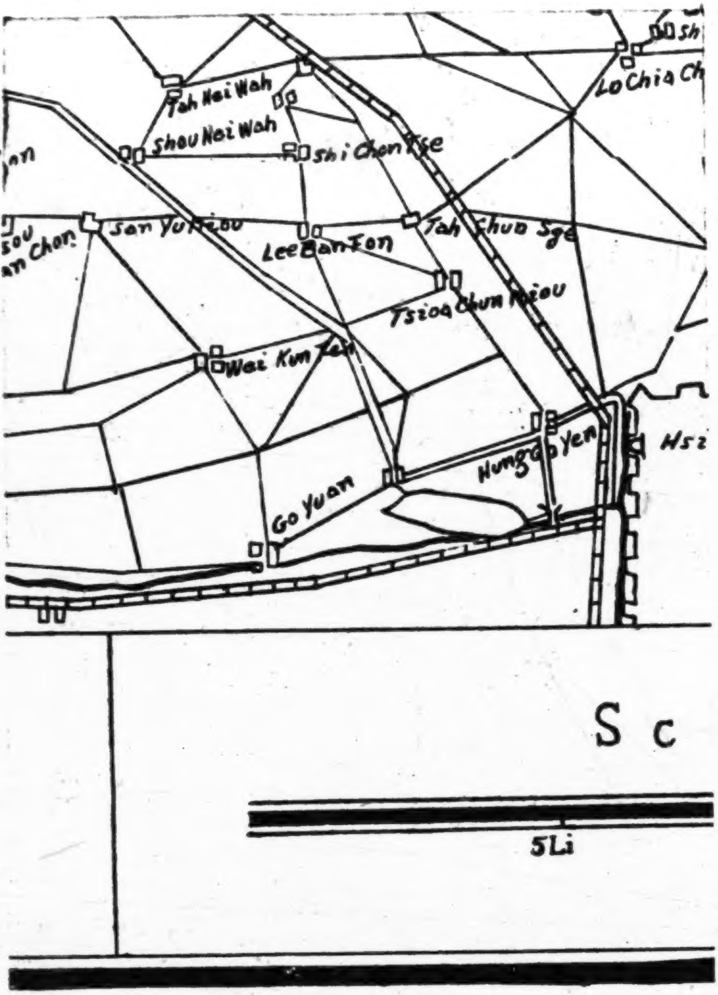
[End Flap Map M]

101
133
361
487


Chan Yin
Chun Wu
Tun
Nan Wan
Lan Tien Chen
Bou Chan Miou
Lou Yen Fong
Hsou Wan
River
Mountain
Walls
Village
Bridge
City gate

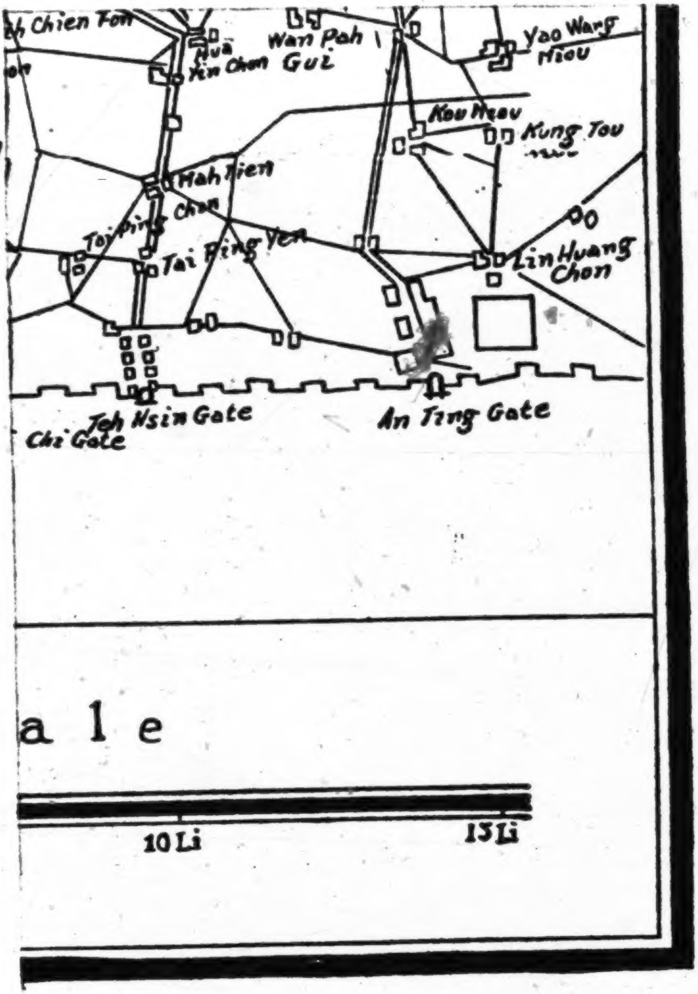
[End Flap Map N]

101
133
361
487


Sh
Lo Chia Ch
Tah Hei Wah
Shou Hei Wah
Shi Chon Tse
San Yu Hsiou
sou
an Chon
Lee Ban Fon
Tah Chuo Sge
Tsioa Chun Hsiou
Wai Kun Tsu
Hungao Yen
Hsi
Go Yuan
S c
5Li

[End Flap Map O]

101
133
361
487


Chien Fon
Hua
Yin Chon
Wan Pah
Gui
Yao Wang
Miou
Kou Miau
Kung Tou
Mah Tien
Tai Ping Chon
Tai Ping Yen
Lin Huang
Chon
Teh Hsin Gate
Chi Gate
An Ting Gate
ale
10 Li
15 Li

[End Flap map P]